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Leadership in Further Education

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Leadership in Further Education

Summary of Research

This study is concerned with the leadership of the post-incorporation college of further education. The aim is to determine the leadership attributes and role of the principal/chief executive of the newly incorporated colleges and the influence of the corporation and external factors on this role.

The 1992 Further and Higher Education Act gave a statutory duty to the principal to lead staff in the college; what it did not do was define that role. The Act was far-reaching in its ramifications for the further education sector as it removed colleges from the management structure of the Local Education Authority and converted them into corporate, charitable organisations with autonomous governing bodies, variously called corporations, corporation members or, board members. These corporations were given responsibility for not only the financial status of the college but also for the selection and support of the principal. The principal in turn becomes the Chief Executive Officer(CEO) to the corporation, an unfamiliar business role as well as the traditional leader of the college. With reference to the literature the historical context of the Act and its impact has been researched and the influence and ideologies for the changes have been identified. The identity, reputation and responsibilities of the further education colleges have all been enhanced in part as a result of the Act and partly as the result of a demanding Further Education Funding Council(FEFC) which are at the interface between the government and the colleges and are the financial masters of the sector. The change models for further education have been led by college principals and their corporations.

The leadership literature has also been reviewed to provide the empirical support for the identification of the leadership attributes of principals of colleges. The literature on leadership is very substantial and much of it theoretical, contradictory and lacking in application. Much of it is about non-college leadership but some is considered to be relevant to the leadership required in colleges. The identification of what is required was made up of the results of a survey of the attributes that were considered important for leading a college of further education by the principals themselves. The views of corporations were determined by analysing the application details for principal/chief executive posts.

Since incorporation, colleges have had to face up to quite dramatic and considerable change. Within colleges, principals have had a major role to play in the leadership of such change. The factors that influence this leadership have been identified along with their responsibilities as leaders. The corporations' view of leadership is used both as a comparison and as a way of identifying their relationship with the principal. This relationship is considered in the light of new and developmental policies in further education on the election of a Labour Government in 1997.

LEADERSHIP IN FURTHER EDUCATION

Introductory Chapter

Further Education: Origins and Background

Further education as a sector in English education was first defined in the 1944 Education Act; Section 47 of the Act stated that further education was:

- (a) 'full-time and part-time education for persons over compulsory school age; and
- (b) leisure-time occupation, in such organised cultural training and recreative activities as are suited to their requirements, for any persons over compulsory school age who are able and willing to profit by the facilities provided for the purpose'.

The Act came into force in England and Wales on 1 April 1945. Despite its simple directness, this definition did not lead to a clear recognition by the public that a new and vital sector of education would flourish.

To ensure the fulfilment of the Act, the office of Minister of Education was set up and charged with promoting, directing and enforcing the national education policy. Also under the Act (clause 41) '... it shall be the duty of every local education authority to secure the provision of adequate facilities for further education...'. As a result the Local Education Authority (LEA) had to draw up schemes and plans to show how they intended to manage education in their area and submit them to the Ministry for approval. Despite the promise of the Act, financial constraints restricted the development of further education. Consequently, in the absence of any form of major regional or national planning, and under the pressure of financial stringency, a

patchwork of further education establishments developed in the decade after the end of the war (Cantor and Roberts 1986). It was not the first time in the history of education that 'further education' growth and development had been forestalled by a lack of national commitment to this form of education. Perhaps this was to be a mirror image of pre-war technical education when, according to Peters (1965), '...in 1938 only about one-fifth of the leavers from elementary schools continued to receive any kind of formal education, and of these most attended in the evenings only' (p.180). A summary of the lack of development is presented in Lowndes (1969). He pointed out that there was some evidence that whereas before 1930 the impulse towards technical education came principally from the ambition of the individual student, after 1930 it was often increasingly reinforced by a tendency among employers to put pressure upon their younger workers to improve their qualifications. Other historians support the non-directional view of Government. Lawson and Silver (1973) suggest that the Board of Education prodded and encouraged but was neither able nor willing to implement a national scheme of organisation to develop technical and further education.

This required the vision and commitment of a war-time minister, who in 1944 introduced the Act that defined further education. R A Butler was the minister who proposed firstly a Bill which then became the Act that so changed the framework of post-war education. 'Butler's contribution was not so much to the ideas in the Bill...but to the political process of turning the ideas into practical proposals with widespread support' (p.4) summarised Barber (1994) in the Times Educational Supplement (TES) on the 50th Anniversary of the Act. Dawn (1995) also writes in

memory of the Act but he points not only to the enthusiasts for the Act but also to some of the critics. He reports of Beresford Ingram who wrote in the TES

Who is to blame for the fact that technical education has not made the advance which a highly industrialised community demands? Why are our buildings so deplorably low? Has the attention of the government been called to look at the state of affairs? (p.4).

(The researcher had to confirm that this comment was indeed made in 1943, one month after the presentation of the Act).

The passing of the Act relied upon Butler's political acumen - one of the qualities of leadership. Maclure (1989) surmises that these skills included the ability to plan, consult, listen, persuade, recognise the most suitable time for presentation and thus communication, be patient and painstaking and work hard at making allies. However, although Butler's skills provided a framework within which the change and development of further education was to take place this was not able to support growth in further education provision.

One of the major stimuli for the growth of further education within the 1944 Act was the County College concept which was to be 'the focal point in the plans for further education and a corner-stone for all part-time education for young people under 18' (Ministry Pamphlet No 8) (From Peters, 1967 p.184). County colleges were to be centres, approved by the Minister, for

providing for young persons who are not in full-time attendance at any school or other education institution such further education, including physical, practical and vocational training, as will enable them to develop their various aptitudes and capabilities and will prepare them for the responsibilities of citizenship (p.182).

This would mean employers releasing any young person under the age of 18 to attend further education during the day whilst also receiving a wage. But though the LEA had a duty to submit plans for such Colleges, the Ministry did not accept the duty to

agree with them; it avoided responding to plans and the County College scheme remained just a scheme. Yet there were those like Pedley (1956) who saw a strong need for the County College, identifying as:

a point of weakness in our present system...the gap in the education of the older adolescent...It is bridged by a favoured minority by the 6th. Forms of grammar schools; but nowhere is there the broad modern structure which could take the potential traffic...(p.61).

Other influential reports and subsequent Acts encouraging the growth in further education endeavoured to build upon the County College idea. Some like the Carr Report (1958) recommended that the state should leave industrial training to industry. This was followed by the Crowther Report (1959) which recommended not only the raising of school leaving age but also compulsory education for 16 to 17 year olds in County Colleges, the development of some being based on current further education institutions. It also saw the responsibility of English education to construct a new form of education which would rely on part-time routes which might require compulsion but would provide a non-conventional academic route. Rogers (1984) was saddened to have to report, 'The proposal for developing county colleges with compulsory part-time attendance was consigned to the museum of educational lost causes.' (p.19). The large-scale development envisaged by the Crowther Committee did not materialise as quickly or as coherently as had been hoped.

A White Paper 'Better Opportunities in Technical Education'(Ministry of Education, 1959) recommended the setting up of courses for the training of junior technicians, resulting in their growth at the expense of the local Evening Institutes that until this time had been the backbone of further education in many areas. The courses developed under the 'Crowther Provision' were expanded as a result of the Haselgrave

Report (DES, 1970) and were placed under the stewardship of the Technician Education Council and the Business Education Council. This was to encourage increasing numbers of student craftsman and operatives to follow nationally recognised programmes of training. The recommendations were quickly taken up by local colleges, and staff and resources were invested in the growing world of further education.

Alongside these national shifts of focus were changes to the local responsibility for further education. Under guidelines from the Ministry and later Department of Education and Science, Local Education Authorities and local politicians were charged with the management of further education. There were guidelines within which they and the governing bodies and principals were expected to operate. Circular 7/59 from the Minister of Education (10 August, 1959) defined these powers to enable governors to be drawn from their local communities and thus with local knowledge and interest and prescribed that they should be given oversight of the establishment and its curriculum. The principal was given the responsibility of the day to day management and discipline within the college. Thus the Circular provided a limited, but important, recognition that the leadership of a college should be with its governors and principal. The 1968 Education Act in section 1 reinforced these responsibilities by advising that there should be clear guidelines for the constitution of a college's governing body. This was followed by Circular 7/70 which set out in its annex Model Articles within which were described the responsibilities of governors and principal under a variety of headings that included: conduct of the College; academic organisation; appointment, promotion and dismissal of staff; finance, premises and supplies; students. These Articles were there in an effort to manage

successfully a very rapidly growing and changing further education sector. FESC (1983) recognised this growth at a conference on the role of the college principal and stated, 'The period from the mid 1950s to the early 80s has been one of unprecedented expansion in the number of institutions[and] in their size and importance to the nation' (p. 387). Fowler (1973) noted some strengths and drawbacks resulting from the way FE colleges had developed:

If the virtue of further education is that it is as flexible as a rubber hose and highly sensitive to social demand, the corresponding view is that it is also a maze, through which only the old and experienced are likely to find their way without error (p. 183)

Other college principals considered that change was vital for the development of further education and the local community. King (1976) observed that a strong link exists between voluntarism and consumerism in further education.

When students may choose to attend, then the attractiveness of the courses becomes important. The orientation towards their consumers, potential students and potential sponsoring employees is expressed in the entrepreneurial character of much of the work of college principals, sounding out local demands and matching them with proposed courses (p.99).

New courses may have appeared the answer at a local level but nationally there were a number of issues that did not seem to be addressed by the further education colleges. Gleeson and Mardle (1980) identified that 'further education has inherited the legacy of providing education to those already in employment...' (p.10), excluding those not employed who were at this time increasing in number. The emerging pattern of further education provision (size of colleges, establishment, resources, level of work and so on) had traditionally come to depend upon a points system firmly adhered to the production forecasts of local industry. Consequently the development was focused mainly upon the technical training of young workers. The pattern of this training was determined by Industrial Training Boards but operated by examining

bodies and college course managers. The Department of Employment (1972) was very pleased with the training opportunities afforded by the Training Boards:

...training and associated further education are complementary aspects of a single process; and the implementation of the Act [The 1964 Industrial Training Act] has involved a constructive partnership between the Boards, their industries and the education services...the education service has made an essential contribution to the work of the Boards (p.49).

Since further education concentrated on young workers and full-time education for 16-18 year olds it appeared to fail to recognise the economic and industrial environment of which it was a part. The late 70s and early 80s saw an economic downturn, with young people forming a particularly large percentage of those out of work. A collapse in manufacturing industry led to a great loss of jobs and a rapid rise in teenage unemployment. Planning, limited though it was at that time, had to recognise that during the next few years many young people would have difficulty in finding jobs on leaving school. The government having introduced a Youth Opportunities Programme in 1978 committed itself to changing education and training to provide a more responsive and competitive industry and a more qualified and flexible labour force.

Ranson et al (1986) stated :

Since the mid-70s Whithall and Westminster have encouraged a redirection of the purposes and practices of training... The State has pursued a number of initiatives to restructure the government of education and training so as to reinforce a new vocational bias. The DES has sought to centralise control and thus to strengthen its own 'steering capacity'; documents and circulars have promoted policy; there has been the demise of the Schools Council and the reinforcing of the Further Education Unit (FEU); powers and regulation over institutional change have been extended; and new specific grants facilitate the leverage of policy (p.5).

The New Training Initiative introduced by the government in 1982 extended the one year Youth Training Scheme (YTS) in 1983 to a two year scheme in 1985 under the control of the Manpower Services Commission (MSC) - ‘...an accelerated juggernaut driving through the traditional landscapes of education and training’ (Ranson and Travers). The MSC was a quango established (in 1973) by the government, and accorded wide ranging powers to intervene in and co-ordinate the nation’s education and training policies. The collapse of the labour market for school leavers as well as for apprenticeship training provided an opportunity for provision of better quality at all levels than hitherto, especially in responsiveness to labour market needs and encouragement for the supply of appropriate skills. Employers, students and trainees could decide, through their role as customers in a well-developed market, what, when, where and how best they can learn. The remit of the MSC was to revolutionise the nation's training. It was accorded a strategy to establish a broad, centrally controlled, framework for training which supported the interests of employers by allowing them to select, recruit and develop the trainees they wanted.

The purpose of this was to ensure all unemployed, minimum age school-leavers would have a training place that would be funded by the MSC under the auspices of the Department of Employment. Much of this money was provided as training allowances to the industries or their agents and to their young trainees. The scheme was to be designed and delivered locally by ‘managing agents’ within a structured organisational framework at national level. Most colleges of further education were asked to contract directly with the industry or the agents for off-the-job training.

Stoney and Lines (1987) remarked,

The advent of the Youth Training Scheme (YTS) marked several boundaries for the further education service. It signified a major increase in direct government funding, as opposed to LEA finance coming into further education. It signalled a shift in the control of vocational education from the further education sector and the Department of Education and Science towards employers, employer-led agencies and the Manpower Services Commission. It changed market conditions and placed colleges in direct competition with other organisations for education and training contracts and it brought young people of more widely differing attributes, motivations and needs into many further education establishments (p.3.).

Many questions concerning the relevance of further education's curricular offering and the ability of colleges to respond rapidly, flexibly and appropriately to the new challenges were raised by the scheme. Alongside the developments of the Youth Training Scheme were issues concerned with industrial training standards and nationally acceptable qualifications. If industry was to become competitive it needed a trained workforce that was trained to recognised standards.

Further education and LEAs, whilst allegedly slow at responding to the YTS, recognised that partnerships with this Manpower Services Commission could bring about improvements in training. One of them was to develop work-related non-advanced further education so as better to meet the needs of a changing market. The White Paper 'Training for Jobs' (1984) gave the MSC 25% of the rate support grant to ensure purchase and influence over non-advanced further education (NAFE). During the late 80s this led to a much more coherent county planning approach to post 16 education and training, with both rationalisation and up-grading of provision and resources. Such responsibility given to the MSC was recognised in the Times Educational Supplement in its leader of 3 Feb., 1984 when it stated that this was a, '...giant stride towards the nationalisation of further education' (p.2). This was

further encouraged by yet another White Paper that set out a new framework for National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs). This indicated achievement in a balanced programme of education and training, covering three essential elements of preparation for competence in any field of employment: skills; knowledge and understanding; practical application.

These new NVQs were under the auspices of another new quango, the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ), which with the support of the MSC and industry had produced a national framework for qualifications. In the first instance, four levels of national standards of achievement have been drawn up by Industrial Lead Bodies in all designated vocational areas. These standards are to provide the building blocks for a range of national vocational qualifications. Within these new qualifications credit may be given for previous experience, and standards of competence are based upon industry wide recognised levels of performance which may be assessed in the work place and no longer exclusively in training centres or colleges.

Such reform has ensured not only that the learning process has been redirected to service the economic demands of the nation as well as the employment needs of young people but also to provide common criteria against which organisations may be judged. In 1991 the government expressed its education and training targets for the rest of the century in terms of the National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) or equivalents and exposed its own agency to judgement.

These changes and increasing demands have tested the management skills of the further education colleges and they were found wanting . As an experienced teacher I had my first job in further education in 1983 and was surprised at the separation of students on YOP and then YTS from the rest of the student body. In my own college at the time the LEA was allowed to take responsibility for the YTS scheme and within two years the LEA had set up its own training group to train these YTS trainees. In 1985 in its interim report the Audit Commission was critical of colleges' use of resources , staffing, cost recovery and non-teaching costs. What the report failed to say was that colleges were working in an ever changing environment; e.g. between 1981 and 1986 there were five White Papers each with new education and training initiatives and all aiming to 'raise standards and secure the best possible return from the resources which are invested in education and training in the United Kingdom' (DES, 1987, p.3).

There were also other studies which were critical of FE college planning with LEAs, typical of which were the studies by the Further Education Staff College and the University of Brunel that commented on the lack of clarity in structure and responsibility for decision-making. Mr. Chris Patten, Education Minister, in a speech to the Industrial Society in 1986 stated his view that '...colleges do not have a captive audience and cannot claim monopoly rights over the education and training of young people and adults.' Other observers confirmed that the further education system was under attack from confident and articulate critics. LEAs and colleges were accused of (among other things) inadequate awareness of industrial needs and being out of date. They were said to be 'sluggish in response, outmoded in arrangements, rigid in delivery and inattentive to work-place based experience' (Stoney and Lines, 1987,

p.17). Within the college fraternity themselves the Further Education Development Unit (FEU, 1993) paints an equally depressing picture

many managers feel that they are under resourced and under prepared; that they are over-restricted in the exercise of their professional judgements and skills by factors and agencies beyond their control; and that when they struggle to perform their best within the limits which exist, they are under-recognised (p.3).

The FEU did endeavour to support the colleges during this time of dramatic change as may be illustrated by the summary from Petty (1988) of thirty-one FEU documents on Vocational Preparation all published between 1982 and 1988.

- The skills to manage change were paramount as its pace in the 80s did not slacken. A reminder was presented within the 1986 White Paper which advised that reform and modernisation of our vocational education and training system required commitment and leadership not only from the Government, but from others too - including both suppliers and users of training;
- it described further education in the late 80s and suggested that opportunities and choices in vocational education and training were greater than ever before;
- access to vocational education and training continues throughout working life;
- there are good quality, reliable and highly professional suppliers of vocational education and training who can profit from the maintenance of quality and from meeting customer needs;
- there is value for money;
- there is a system which employers and employees understand, respect and use to the full.

This should be compared to the description provided by the DES in 1985:-

The very flexible system of further education in England and Wales permits anyone to acquire whatever qualifications his or her capabilities and available time allow. Study may be full time; sandwich; part-time, or on individual days for one or more whole days a week; Or full time for short periods; or in the evening only. There are no upper age limits, and qualifications can be acquired for their own sake or as a step towards more advanced courses (p.20).

Staff in colleges might be forgiven for thinking that one arm of government was not linked to another and that somehow change was being introduced for its own sake rather than to improve the service.

The title of the 1986 White Paper 'Working Together' emphasised the partnership between the LEAs and further education colleges and the MSC. This was vital in view of the 25% of the traditional budget held by the MSC and only released on the successful completion of area-wide plans for further education. These were strategic plans that set out strategies for non-advanced further education for the next three years. As might be expected there were mixed levels of response to such arrangement from all three partners. However, the exercise proved to be a valuable learning experience in preparation for The Education Reform Act 1988 which placed a duty on every LEA to prepare and submit for the Secretary of State's approval a scheme providing for:

- (i) the principles and procedures which the authority will use to plan the educational provision to be made in the further and higher education colleges which it maintains or substantially assists;
- (ii) the determination of an annual budget for each of these colleges; and
- (iii) the delegation by the authority of the management of the budget to the governing body of the college.

The 1988 Act also redefined further education; in place of the 1944 act definition it stated in part II Clause 41, section (2) that ' in this Act "further education" means -

- (a) full time and part time education for persons over compulsory school age (including vocational, social, physical and recreational training); and
- (b) organised leisure-time occupation provided in connection with the provision of such education

Many LEAs and their colleges took the opportunity to re-think their approach to education and training post-16, introducing clear statements of mission, values and policy objectives for the first time and presenting them for public discussion. For example Warwickshire's Education Service (1989) stated :-

The Education Reform Act (1988) provides Warwickshire with a welcome opportunity to make a clear educational policy statement for the 1990s...[and enables us to] consider how best to define a policy framework through which we may best meet the needs of Warwickshire people (p.1).

The Articles of Government within the Act set out the responsibilities for LEA, college governors and principals. This is summarised in the Shropshire LEA's (1990) consultation document for colleges and the public:-

The [Local] Authority, in consultation with the Governors, shall be responsible for determining, in accordance with the scheme [of delegation], the general education character of the College and its place in the local education system.

The Governors shall be responsible. In accordance with the scheme, for the general direction of the College. Subject to the responsibilities of the Authority and the Governors ... the Principal shall be responsible for the executive management of the College, including its financial management, internal organisation and discipline (p.3).

This emphasised local responsibility for education and training but within a national agenda. Alongside the Act was published a Department of Employment White Paper 'Employment for the 1990s' which promised -

The Government will press ahead with its Work-related Further Education Programme in England and Wales...to link vocational education more closely to the needs of employers. The programme provides incentives and help to the public sector of further education

to enable it to respond more rapidly to the changing needs of employers and to enhance the cost-effectiveness of its provision. All LEAs in England and Wales now have forwarded development programmes for further education provision. Through these programmes more relevant and accessible provision is now being made, particularly in the field of the new technologies. And the further education system itself is enhancing the flexibility of its delivery, improving its marketing capacity, developing its use of information technology and improving its management information systems. Colleges will be helped to develop in this way by the provisions of the Education Reform Act 1988 (p.45-46).

Under the Education Reform Act HMI (1990) point out,

colleges manage delegated budgets and LEAs have a duty to plan strategically and monitor college performance. These changes add to the information needs of college managers (p.3).

They further report,

[Some LEA have established] clear quality assurance plans, which requires colleges to develop quality assurance policies as an integral part of college reviews (p.5).

This White Paper continued the theme of partnership encouraged in previous White Papers but the direction this time was towards local partnerships to stimulate new business enterprise. The focus of the partnerships was to be the new Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs) that were to plan and deliver training and promote and support the development of small businesses and self employment within their area, which was not coincident with LEA or Area Manpower Board boundaries. They were to replace the local offices of the MSC (The name of which had already changed to the Training Agency). Clyde (1990) thought that 'Individual colleges...may have to forge relationships with more than one TEC and may find considerable differences between the style of operation...' (p.4).

This was a new era for the relationship between LEA and its colleges and local industries, but short lived. Before any real success of the schemes could be judged a

new Act removed the further education responsibilities of the LEAs and placed them firmly in the hands of a new quango the Further Education Funding Council (FEFC) in 1992. This was not only a new beginning for further education but it also introduced more and far reaching changes to post-16 education.

The Winds of Change

The turning point - 'the end of the liberal consensus and the point at which praise changed to doubt' (Whitty,1985, p.3) - may be accurately pin-pointed to October 18th,1976 at Ruskin College, Oxford and the speech by the then Prime Minister, James Callaghan . Holt and Reed (1988) recognised the significance of the occasion claiming that, 'in political terms, the decisive influence was ...[the]...1976 speech at Ruskin College' (p.15). Others saw the time as significant but brought about by political and social pressures. Jones, (1992) stated that 'by 1976 the many- pronged attack on the shortcomings, for some the positive harm, of the developments of the 60s was sufficiently well rooted to produce a political convergence' (p.100). Kogan (1975) also felt the need to comment as he was researching at the time,

in 1973 the most severe economic blizzard since the war finally brought the movement of educational optimism to an end...from 1970-74 the favourable climate surrounding education came to an end (p.38).

It was not only an 'unfavourable climate' but also a greater recognition that the government should do something about the situation in a more coherent and comprehensive manner. Merson (1995) suggests that it was politically opportune to 'blame' education for the nation's ills: 'The distinctive feature of a political explanation for economic decline is that it is constructed to serve political purposes regardless of its basis in economic realities' (p.303). A report from the Organisation of Economic and Cultural Development (OECD,1975) concurred with the view that the government should do something about the socio-economic changes that were occurring:

it seems surprising that neither the rapid expansion of resource needs for education in the 1960s nor the specific problems of economic

growth and social progress in the UK impelled the government or the other departments to develop an integrated or at least co-ordinated approach to this vital challenge to industrial society (p.36).

Ranson (1980) pointed out that the economic and social changes at this time gave serious implications for the management of the education service whose

vision and objectives are being questioned and simplified, while the complex, often ambiguous, traditional framework of decision making... is being clarified, concentrated and centralised: in short, the traditional balance of autonomy, power and accountability in education is being redefined (p.3).

Batteson (1997) with the benefit or prejudice of hindsight provides the explanation that, 'social policy offered 'get-at-able' arenas - scope for government to be seen to be doing something whilst economic dilemmas remain intractable'(p.363). So perhaps it was inevitable that this change that was about to take place was to be government led. The speech was delivered at an innocuous stone-laying ceremony that has had repercussions to this day. Holt and Reid (1988) called it the 'decisive influence' (p.15) in political terms in the development of education. Using discussion notes provided by the Education Secretary Fred Mulley and Senior members of Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI) and advice from Bernard Donoghue his chief political adviser, the Prime Minister set out a new political agenda for education and began 'The Great Debate' made up of a number of regional conferences in which discussion of the demise of education was encouraged and workable solutions sought. Such a debate was perhaps to persuade educationalists to modify their apparent indifference to what they saw as a national economic rather than an educational issue. Judge and Dickson (1991) pointed out the growing disaffection of the public at the indifference of education to the economic plight of the country. 'From the mid-to-late 1970s the institutions responsible for education and training were particularly singled out for

criticism ... as the source of an anti-industrial culture' (p.5). Hyland (1994, p.3) also notes 'Throughout the year that followed, the role of education in helping to improve industrial performance was taken up by public figures and politicians'. It was this overt political dimension that was new to education. Jones (1992) recognised too the change at this time that the speech symbolised the 'increasingly political dimension' of the educational debate in the 1970s. In making the speech Callaghan set out an agenda for educational reform which has long outlasted his government and its philosophy. The agenda was four fold (Hopkins, 1978) and was made up of the problems that seemed most critical, the three 'Rs' in primary schools; the curriculum in secondary schools; educational standards and the examination system; and the education and progression of 16-19 year olds.

According to Donoghue (1987) the intention of the Ruskin Speech was to improve the quality as opposed to the quantity of education at a time when resources were limited (for political or economic reasons). In his address, the Prime Minister hinted that one of the reasons for the distance between education practice and industry and community requirements was the aloofness of those directly involved in education: 'It is almost as though some people would wish that the subject matter and purpose of education should not have public attention focused on it; or, at any rate, that profane hands should not be allowed to touch it.' Callaghan (1977). But the genie was now out of the bottle and a government was actively involved in the educational debate and was indeed leading the debate.

There are some particularly those in the Conservative Party, who may argue that the turning point was in fact 1969 when the first of the so called 'Black Papers' by Cox

and Dyson, (1969) criticising State education was published. This described an education system in chaos or crisis and gave a call for a return to pre-comprehensive and pre-progressive forms and methods (Maude, 1978). Pollard et al (1988) also noted an influential change at this point in time, 'Looking back, it is possible to see that 1969 was the key year when optimism broke, with the publication of...the first of the Black papers.' (p.7). It is felt by Jones (1992) 'that the Black paper of 1975 and the Ruskin College speech raised the same issues' (p.100). Stuart Sexton of the Institute of Economic Affairs in discussion with Ball (1990) suggested that Callaghan jumped on a band wagon that had been built by Conservative politicians and activists via the Black papers. Others (TES, p21, 1988) think that the turning point was under the Conservative Government of the Prime Minister, Harold Macmillan, who by setting up Industrial Training Boards in 1964 brought the state back into the regulation of training after more than a century of laissez - faire. (But whilst at the time this appeared a big step it did not make the important improvement in training that was intended). A similar 'shot in the arm' was provided by the Heath Government that led to the setting up of the MSC which did become, under a Thatcher Government, a very influential vehicle for Government education and training policy for further education.

Still others, with the benefit of hindsight, identified other centres of influence e.g. Ball (1990) writes of the progressive and incremental changes in schools and LEA being replaced by conflict and contention and greater central control and that this occurred mainly from 1979; Kemp and Mayhew (1991) drew on the work of Beck (1983), contending

The starting-point of this current round of the [education and training] debate has normally been identified as [the] speech in 1976, though arguably its real genesis came somewhat earlier, in the late 1960s and

early 1970s, with the 'black papers' on education and the associated controversies about the comprehensivization of secondary state schooling and allegations of a general fall in educational standards (p.205).

But all agreed that Callaghan gave a speech that assured a new ideological focus to education and subsequent policy.

Callaghan maintained the debate during the next two years. He appeared careful not to place blame but to question why education was in such a parlous state and had failed to meet the country's needs. Not all at the DES were so circumspect, however, and in a Green Paper in 1977 stated, 'Teachers lacked adequate professional skills...Underlying all this was the feeling that the educational system was out of touch with the fundamental need for Britain to survive economically in a highly competitive world...' (p.2). Those who wrote the Black Papers were less certain of where responsibility lay for a 'poor' education system and fuelled a debate on the disillusionment of the public in teachers and the education system. Their image of current education being inappropriate was one that gained momentum and formed a basis not simply for reform but for a climate of distrust and even disdain for teachers - a climate within which a new Conservative Government would clearly state its new policies. This was not Callaghan's approach; he encouraged all to contribute to its improvement. At a careers convention in 1977 he stated that

It can only be through the wealth that industry creates that we can hope to maintain our standard of living...All in positions of influence whether in education, the media, trades unions, professional bodies or the government, have a responsibility to bring about a change in our national attitudes.

Other members of his Government offered support for these views. Gordon Oakes, Minister of State for Education in 1977 in a speech to the Northern Education Conference in Scarborough stated,

Since 1963 the UK share of major industrialised countries' exports had fallen from 15.3% to 9.3%. The positive approach is to create a climate for reversing this trend. Those of us in education have a big part to play.

Such speeches and intervention by the government and particularly by a Prime Minister were the first signs of a government taking a lead in education since the bold statements of the 1944 Act. This was a step away from what had been a laissez faire approach since that Act whose model was of a national service, administered locally, although Batho (1989) reminded us that, as a result of the 1944 Act, Butler intended central government to 'lead boldly and not to follow timidly' (p.25). Both he and future ministers until Callaghan's intervention failed to fulfil his promise. Kogan (1975) identified that

many of the educational and institutional policies remained largely unchanged between 1960 and 1974 and, indeed, most of them were inherited from the first of the public education systems at the beginning of the 20th. Century (p.23).

He further stated rather ominously, 'from 1970 to 1974 the favourable climate surrounding education came to an end' (p.38). Richmond (1978) in describing the 60s and 70s in education spoke of a reforming zeal that had been followed by a headlong retreat into cynical disavowal. Grace (1993) thought that this period (1960s to early 70s) was one in which the headteacher was 'enhanced and empowered...as never before' (p.356).

Callaghan's speech, subsequent debate and government circulars pointed to a dramatic change of approach i.e. one of government intervention if not necessarily clear

leadership, However, such leadership was promised by a new government in 1979: ‘the Secretaries of State ... believe they should seek to give a lead in the process of reaching a national consensus in a desirable frame-work for the curriculum’ (DES,1979, p. 6).

The opportunity for intervention afforded by the Labour Government was eagerly taken up by a new and hungry Conservative Government which was determined to remedy the apparent shortcomings of the education system and education’s failure to meet the nation’s needs at a time of economic hardship. Indeed, with some chagrin, Norman St John Stevas the Conservative education opposition spokesman in 1976 complained that Callaghan, ‘launched a campaign for raising educational standards. We had been in the course of preparing our own campaign, but we were not quick enough off the mark and we were nipped at the post’ (cited in Knight 1990, p.102). In 1979 Conservative critics had ammunition for their attack in the form of the results of a survey of LEA management of the curriculum in primary and secondary schools. Ironically these were the results of a survey set up by the Labour predecessor, which had been determined to find out why education was failing to meet the country’s needs. In prompting responses to the survey that Labour Government had emphasised its philosophy in the contextual document sent with the survey. It had expressed its concern by stating that it would not be compatible with the duties of Secretaries of State to:

promote the education of the people of England and Wales, or with their accountability to Parliament, to abdicate from leadership on educational issues which have become a matter of lively public concern. The Secretaries of State will therefore seek to establish a broad agreement with their partners in the education service on a framework for the curriculum, and particularly, on whether, because

there are aims common to all schools and to all pupils at certain stages, there should be a 'core' or 'protected part' (DES, 1977, p.12).

The results confirmed that few LEAs were in control of the curriculum in their schools. Most LEAs admitted that they relied upon headteachers and their staff to ensure that an appropriate curriculum was being used. But from the comments of HMI many schools did not have appropriate curricula.

The evidence of the survey is that many pupils are not well served by the curricular structures and organisation of their schools. Some are deprived ...of important areas of experience...both the more and less able pupils...are not readily enabled to relate what they learn in different subjects or to see what they learn in different contexts' (DES, 1979, p.16).

The results provided fuel to the fears of the Labour Government and confirmed the prejudices of the Conservatives who were now able to move forwards confidently. The government was therefore given the facts and the excuse to act and in particular to over ride the views of the LEAs as it had evidence that they were not doing their job. This applied not only to schools but also to further education, at whose door was laid the problem of youth unemployment. The new Conservative Government brought with it, thought Ranson (1994) 'A vision of a consumer democracy...needed...[to] ...replace these purported failures of the social democratic and corporate state that had lasted for a generation or more into the 1970s' (p. 69). Further education had grown remarkably since the Crowther Report (1959) had spoken of the need to provide 'an alternative form of education for those who had got incurably tired of school' (p.412). By 1966, colleges accounted for two fifths of the entries at 'A' level. In part this emphasis on 'academic' approaches whilst deemed as success by further education was seen as a betrayal of its routes as a training provider for industry. Thompson 1983) identifies that, 'Further education colleges are

themselves changing substantially in the balance and nature of their work and the clients for whom they provide' (p.481). But they were not changing in a way that was felt to be of benefit to industry. Page (1967) observed pre-1970 that 'Linking industrial training effectively with further education certainly continues to be one of the headaches though some progress has been made' (p.99).

Others found the complexity of FE to be a major issue. As Ranson (1994) suggests , 'the problem in further education was defined as the need to rationalise a profusion of courses so tangled as to confound the investigator' (p.45). By the mid 70s growing youth unemployment was blamed upon inadequate provision in colleges, the rigid structure of courses and concern that colleges only offered traditional courses and were seeking to teach 'A' levels and not technical and scientific education. Teachers and lecturers alike were consistently blamed by the new government and its supporters. The criticisms were not confined to attitude or curriculum as Mansell (1985b) identified, 'Colleges are criticised because they are poorly managed, poorly staffed, under-resourced and insufficiently client oriented' (p.596). He also recognised that 'It could be argued with hindsight that due to the collective ineptitude of the educational system (including teachers, LEA and the DES), we have over the last 10 years missed the opportunity to provide an educational solution to the 'uncommitted' or 'unqualified school leaver' (p.348). Other authors too joined in the recognition of the inadequacies of the current system, for example Gleeson and Mardle (1980):

In recent years politicians, industrialists and educationalists have expressed considerable anxiety about the future of Britain's educational system to produce an adequately trained supply of technical personnel (p.2).

A principal of a college of FE (Tolley, 1983) was convinced that 'the structure of traditional FE is no longer appropriate to society's needs. Traditional FE is...insufficiently responsive to the general pace of change' (p.117). Some 'friends of further education' may have foreseen the inadequacies and looked for governmental solutions particularly from recent acts e.g. the 1968 Education (No.20) Act, with Thompson (1983) pointing out,

Whilst it would be much too sanguine to expect the structure of college governance to ensure good and economic provision, it should encourage it by establishing a framework within which responsibilities are clearly defined and effective management can flourish (p.482).

The Hillgate Group (1987, p.3) was perhaps the most direct. 'We have no confidence in the educational establishment, which has acted as an ideological interest group, and which is unlikely to further the Governments aim of providing real education' The Hillgate Group expressed this some eight years after the Thatcher government came to power.

Increases in economic problems meant that as well as placing blame, the government sought radical solutions. Heaton and Lawson (1996) suggested that vocationalists, i.e. those demanding an expansion of vocational education and training, claimed that 'vocational courses are more relevant than traditional courses because they closely correspond to the real needs of students and the real needs of the country' (p.32). It could also have been brought about by other factors as reported by Low (1983) who drew on the experience of Davies (1979) who boldly stated that 'the existence of, or the thought of, large numbers of unemployed young people roaming around has inclined adults to 'moral panic'' (p.32). Why on the streets? Ranson et al (1986) had no doubts, quoting from Ball (1976), 'the post-manufacturing revolution in work,

hailed since the 1960s is now finally emerging...It has already led to the collapse of teenage employment for 16-17 year olds' (p.2). Heaton and Lawson (1996) also report that New Right theorists see vocationalism as a means of instilling a new 'enterprise' culture rather than the 'liberal' culture of the 1960s. They and other political writers recognised the dilemma of the New Right which fell into two camps - those that were strongly for the market and those who looked for greater central control via a reduction in the influence of the LEA.(See, Simon,B 1992 and Whiteside et al 1992) To some extent this dilemma was epitomised when Sir Keith Joseph was replaced by Kenneth Baker as the Secretary of State for Education. Some went as far as to see not only a dilemma but a confusion: Ranson et al (1986) describe the restructuring of further education as, 'changes that are producing extraordinary confusion even from the point of view of administration let alone bemused youngsters. The proliferation of developments which, ostensibly, have little relation to each other is not surely a sound way to develop coherent policies and planning for the age group' (p.6).

In 1981 the Audit Inspectorate pointed to a lack of consistency of approach between LEA and colleges in the management of their resources and their curriculum. (DoE, 1981, p.4) 'It has been difficult to draw a clear picture of the formal arrangements to be adopted in local authorities and colleges for setting policy and objectives and for planning and supervising the educational work to be done at lecture-student level.' It had similar difficulties in identifying responsibilities within colleges too.

Our discussions with Principals reveal that, in practice, the arrangements for directing and managing the teacher resources and their administrative supporters vary not only from authority to authority but from college to college...we have been unable to identify a clear chain of accountability (p.4).

This apparent lack of accountability did not sit well with the free market philosophy of the then government and the Secretary of State Sir Keith Joseph which required colleges to be accountable and yet be able to compete freely in the market. The Government itself provided the competitors in the first instance as new training organisations were set up via the Youth Training Scheme programme of the Manpower Services Commission, with Managing Agents made up of the industrial critics of the further education establishment. Perhaps unexpectedly LEAs too were encouraged by the scheme and became competitors of their own colleges. Tomlinson (1993) reports the strength of Keith Joseph's convictions by quoting from a 1976 statement made by Joseph:

The blind, unplanned, uncoordinated wisdom of the market...is overwhelmingly superior to the well-researched, rational, systematic, well-meaning, co-operative, science-based, forward looking, statistically respectable plans of Government (p.163).

Ten years later such a philosophy was accepted as the norm, but disguised the painful route in reaching the acceptance. More than ten years later Martinez (1993) summarised this 'route', showing that

...the government moved towards the creation of a market in vocational education and training through a succession of training initiatives culminating in the present youth and adult training schemes managed by the network of TECs and funded by the Employment Department. Although in some areas FE institutions became the largest if not monopoly suppliers of training, in many other places a combination of political ambivalence on the part of elected members, unresponsiveness on the part of colleges and political inclinations on the part of the Training Agency, led to the development of a flourishing private sector training industry supplying initial training for which colleges had previously been virtually the sole suppliers (p.680).

The Audit Commission (1993) too clearly recognised that change some ten years after its 'bafflement' of 1981:

There are many changes affecting the provision of education for 16 to 19 year olds, in particular the development of a regulated market as institutions are encouraged to compete for students. If students are to exercise the choice potentially available to them, they need access to comprehensive information about options, including comparative information on the effectiveness of institutions (p.1).

There were, however, many steps between 1980 and 1990 for Conservative Governments to stamp their philosophy on the education system although such philosophy was not always clear. For example, some members were concerned that 'the market' should rule, others that there should be much greater control at the centre and in particular that wayward LEA should be cut out of its intermediary position between educational institutions and the State. An emphasis on the weaknesses of the colleges in the 70s and 80s already referred to is reinforced in hindsight by a number of authors Batho (1989) commenting that the further education sector has been wedded to a past world of apprenticeships for a privileged minority of working-class youth and had not encouraged the participation of those that had 'failed' in the secondary schools. This failure to achieve standards had been emphasised by Callaghan and was a constant theme of demand for improvements by successive Conservative Governments. In each of their White Papers (A New Training Initiative, 1981 and Training for Jobs, 1984) they boldly spelled out their policy, e.g. (DES,1985, p.10) 'The Government's principal aims for all sectors of education are first, to raise standards at all levels of ability; and second, since education is an investment in the nation's future, to secure the best possible return from the resources which are found for it.' The Secretary of State for Education and Science at that time (Sir Keith Joseph) made an issue of these standards in 1983: 'We have to recognise frankly that to those who are unfamiliar with it the FE world is an immensely complex one with different standard setting bodies at local, regional and national levels, with a

bewildering variety of courses and a multitude of strange initials' (p.10). It may be helpful to remember that at this time nearly 25% of further education's resources were held by the MSC and this also meant a reduction in the potential spending of the Local Authorities.(Ranson et al, 1986). It also meant that by taking responsibility for funding for Work-related Non-advanced Further Education (WRNAFE) the Commission gained a powerful influence over the other 75% (Maclure, 1989 p.105) This concern was reinforced by the tone of the White Paper (1981) which advised that training must be 'firmly work oriented and lead to jobs...training and vocational education must become more responsive to employment needs at national and local level' (p.7) . College principals were concerned by the driving force of the MSC and at the 'force' with which they had to accept the Youth Training Scheme, Lambourne (1983) perhaps spoke for many when he criticised the developments in YTS;

Change is rapid, far reaching and lop-sided in that it is happening in one part of the FE system without any clarity about the overall changes that are taking place ...Principals are extremely worried that their well-understood and well-respected day release offerings are to be replaced by YTS provision run by ad hoc organisations, making it impossible to guarantee the same level of quality (p.500).

This change prompted enormous criticism in other quarters, too, for example from the Association of Metropolitan Authorities in its report on non-advanced further education in 1986:

The publication of the White Paper, 'Training for Jobs' in Feb 1984 sparked off controversy between the government and the MSC on the one hand and the LEA and their colleges of further education on the other. The core of the dispute was the White Paper proposed that the MSC should purchase 25% of work-related non-advanced further education. The White Paper contained neither evidence nor argument to justify its faith that the MSC can make vocational education more responsive to the needs of industry and commerce. The purchase proposal was regarded as a vote of no confidence in the LEAs and their colleges (p.5).

One of the trade union members of the MSC, Wormold (1985), appeared to try to except himself from the decision, when at an FE Conference he said,

The new responsibilities given to the MSC in the White Paper, Training for Jobs (1984), were not powers that were sought. There was no prior consultation either with local authorities or the MSC; the White Paper contained government decisions not proposals. Our [MSC] mandate was to give support for vocational education and training which was closely geared to labour market needs (p. 359).

This was little comfort to those college principals present. There was perhaps another 'vote of no confidence' in the use of the MSC via the Department of Employment rather than the DES which may have been because the DES showed either a lack of drive or perhaps because of a lack of trust in the DES by the politicians that it could carry out the policies vigorously. Woolard (1983) certainly saw the MSC as providing 'much of the motive power'. Cantor and Roberts (1986, p18) described the DES as unable or unwilling to formulate a clear-cut policy for further education and suggested 'Although, under the pressure of events, the DES had adopted a somewhat more 'centrist' approach to some aspects of further education, it still has a very long way to go before it is able and willing to provide firm leadership'. It is argued by Ranson (1994) that the MSC 'provided a model of a centralised bureaucracy, an effective centre-local delivery system; and a [belief]...the MSC could deliver, the DES wasted time in consultation' (p.64). Raggatt & Unwin (1991, p.xii) emphasised the power of the MSC over the DES by referring to a particular innovation,

The decision to give the MSC a leading role in developing and implementing a strategy for youth training was also a decision not to give schools (or the DES) a central role. The other impact for further education was that with 25% of the funding the MSC was able to substantially influence the major portion of general further education, i.e. approximately 75% of funding, and the way in which it was spent. The Government endorsed the strategy as being 'in line with the market-oriented approach to training that is now required' (DoE and DES, 1984, p.12)

It became clearer that one of the ways of influencing the development of further education is via central control of funding. Maclure (1989) was able to say 'it was evident that there was a line management policy in the education service of England and Wales from the Cabinet to the humblest classroom' (p.8). Funding issues were readily recognised by principals as being critical to the development of their colleges and Farmer (1983) identified,

One of the most profound changes in our environment has been the expansion of new sources of funding for non-advanced FE. We are now receiving substantial capital and revenue funds from agencies such as the MSC, the EEC, the Urban Programme and Section 11 funding. An increasing proportion of our resources is therefore now coming from outside the control of the LEA or its colleges (p.484.).

Graystone (1986) reinforces this position in reporting a study made by the Association of Metropolitan Authorities in which was said: 'FE is under-resourced and over-stretched. Developments now taking place in non-advanced further education have occurred at a time of tightening of belts' (p.137).

At its most influential the MSC was led by Lord Young who was described as 'a shrewd and ruthless Thatcherite strategist' (TES, 1988, p.20) and saw the MSC as a lever for changing the education system. The MSC's role was a way of prodding, cajoling and bribing a decentralised and fiercely autonomous system into bringing what and how it teaches into line with objectives and policies decided at the centre. Pollard et al (1988) thought that the influence of the MSC in schools and colleges had been considerable, 'especially during the last few years, when it has been seen as the driving force for change' (p.9). In contrast the DES, 'has come to be viewed as bureaucratic and slow' (p.9). But by the end of the 80s the Conservative Government appeared to have a paradox of its own making. A highly promoted MSC had failed to

deliver its objectives: ‘...the MSC had not transformed Britain with an unambiguously enterprise culture’ (Evans, 1992, p.137).

Other ‘Thatcherite personalities’ had an influential role too: the central control was strengthened with the change of Secretary of State from Sir Keith Joseph to Kenneth Baker and this enabled a different kind of New Right radicalism to be asserted (Tomlinson, 1993). Baker was a very strong minded Minister and Richards (1978) suggested ‘a strong minded minister can impose his will on the officials responsible for the running of his department’ (p.150). He began by attacking local authorities in a speech at the North of England Education Conference in June 1987. The Minister of State in that same year told the Industrial Society that the key themes of the Government were to be effectiveness and efficiency for the reform of further education. He emphasised his approach in the Second Reading of the proposed 1988 Act on 1 December, 1987: ‘we need to inject a new vitality into that system [the system produced by the 1944 Act] it has become producer-dominated’. Baker took an opportunity at the next North of England Education Conference in January 1988 to more clearly state his policy:

The Government has no wish to interfere in the running ...of the colleges. Our purpose is to clarify their objectives, require them to give an account of their stewardship to their customers and their cash providers and allow them...the principals to manage properly the institutions for which they have responsibility (p.2).

The FEU presented a document ‘Managing a Changing FE’ in 1988 which appeared ironically before one of the most influential education bills since 1944. In its text the FEU expressed its recognition of the change that had taken place in further education in curriculum, management, responsibility: ‘the colleges feel that they face an

uncertain future; the stress recognisable in colleagues working for other, more, political, authorities is coming closer' (p. 4).

This transformation is largely the product of two basic tenets of faith incorporated in New Right philosophy: a commitment to a market ideology, on the grounds that educational standards are too low and could best be raised by greater enterprise and competition on the part of the colleges; and the idea that many of the LEAs were politically and ideologically misguided and a bureaucratic hindrance to the raising of these standards. Hence the 1988 Education Reform Act and subsequent legislation has 'effectively emasculated the LEAs and strengthened the central authority and, to an extent, individual colleges' (M. Barker, 1994 p.2). In contrast Libby and Hall (1988) put forward a DES view that the Education Reform Act provided a new managerial and organisational framework to enable LEA and college governing bodies to work more effectively together and that this strengthened the links between the colleges and the LEAs as it more clearly set out their roles in further education. Evans (1992) was more sceptical and referred to an article in 'The Financial Times' that he felt confirmed the ideological approach of the Conservative Government.

The F.T. saw this marketing strategy as being consistent with its strategy to create an enterprise culture in Britain and saw that the government had progressed this philosophy in 'distinct ideological periods'. From 1979 to 1982 monetarism prevailed. As this was increasingly jettisoned, the period from 1983 to 1987 was predominantly one of privatisation and a supply-side strategy, which included deregulating the labour movement, and promoting skills training. Since 1987 they have followed a marketing strategy (p155).

He saw the Act as more divisive than did the DES.

Theodossin 1991) thought that, 'The 1988 ERA pushed colleges further towards the business model' (p.32) and imposed on them a commercial model which meant they had to compete in a new market place for education and training. Such a market orientation meant a lack of certainty of success and possibly the lack of support from the LEA if they failed - a new harsh world for principals to work within and yet also one with some opportunities for management autonomy. To many of us in further education at this time the 1988 Act gave the promise of change that might in some way be in the control of the principals of colleges of further education rather than the local LEA and give us the opportunity to prove our ability to meet the needs of a wider group of potential students. Gorringer (1993) would appear to support this view,

The Education Reform Act of 1988, in purely cultural terms, was a powerful shift in responsibilities and organisational development. College internal governance and management was strengthened, although LEAs retained key powers of planning and funding. The space was opening to develop greater institutional autonomy, but also a sense of the depth and complexity of management (p.5).

Since the Act ensured that planning policy for the new WRNAFE remained within the realm of responsibilities of the LEAs the promise of autonomy was taken away. It was almost as if the Government was testing its strength, or rather the strength of local opinion. Tessa Blackstone (1992) was one of the observers who saw that further education had appeared to make little progress in providing a new form of post-16 education on the other hand, Gleeson (1989) did note wide changes under the heading 'New FE' which he took to refer to:

a wide range of pre-vocational, academic, professional and training courses, including adult and access courses which were designed to meet the vocational needs of a heterogeneous clientele...incorporating students whose education and training horizons span almost the entire occupational structure (p.19).

Mansell (1985a) was much more damning in his views on the 'progress' of further education at a conference in Coombe Lodge, the management training centre for further education,

It could be argued with hindsight that due to the collective ineptitude of the educational system we have over the last 10 years failed to provide an educational solution to the 'uncommitted' or 'unqualified' school leaver (p.348).

Green's (1995) description was equally dismissive of the quality of FE

Expansion without strategic leadership had turned some colleges into sprawling and somewhat shambolic institutions. Parcelled up into departments which were often run as miniature fiefdoms, the institutions had little unity of purpose, collective ethos or effective organisation (p.ii)

But Blackstone (1992) further remarked that the 1988 Education Act had 'left this stage of education virtually untouched.' And government had ignored this aspect of education in its focus on schools.

Shackleton (1992b) also considered the lack of government forethought for FE

It is generally accepted that the ERA[Education Reform Act] of 1988 had things other than further education on its mind, and that it included clauses relating to FE simply to ensure that there was some consistency of managerial arrangements across the piece (p.32).

This lack of progress was due to the lack of progress in basic issues. According to Judge and Dickson (1991)

Although the political contexts are very different, the issues surrounding education, training and economic performance at the beginning of the 1990s are little changed from those which dominated the debates of a decade and a half ago when James Callaghan made his Ruskin College speech (p.xi).

It may have been 'untouched' because it had apparently remained unknown by senior politicians as in 1989, Kenneth Baker referred to further education as 'the Cinderella of the education service' adding for good measure that FE has a, 'dowdy image...and

what is an undeniably low profile' (p.7). Theodossin (1991) noted, when researching further education, that in his survey of Education Reports 'only 2% of reports identified were on further education.' (p.44). Principals too were disappointed in the public perception of further education, 'Many principals still feel that further education is the forgotten sector of education and were concerned about interference in the sector for political gains at national or local level, or both.' (KPMG, 1990, p.6). Yet Ainley (1990) states '...it is extraordinary that it [FE] is not more often a focus of educational attention, especially as many of the changes that later spread to the rest of education were first introduced in this sector' (p.86). In a collection of papers commenting about the 1988 Act two senior officers of the DES, Libby and Hall (1988) recognised that 'more than any other sector of education, FE has to cope with change...The past decade has seen unprecedented change in FE.'(p.8) However, the rest of education did not appear to take note of FE and government focus remained on schools.

There was greater pressure and support to change the management of schools rather than further education as the so-called 'loony left' authorities ILEA, Brent and Haringey provided the government with a wonderful political excuse to introduce new models of good practice. Thus changing the schools sector was a major priority for the government and it appears the 1988 Act had changes in further education almost as an afterthought. The idea of FE as an 'also ran' was considered by Kedney and Parkes (1988) who noted that

The Bill has become an Act of Parliament and the action begins. The length and complexity of the public issues raised by the legislation have been the subject of much debate, remarkably little of which has focused on what now forms the maintained FE sector (p.3).

Green (1997) considered that the White Paper 'Employment for the 1990s' was more influential than the 1988 Act for FE. (This White Paper introduced the Training and Enterprise Councils a quango made up of a mix of civil servants and local commerce managed by a local board of business people,[Based on the Private Industry Councils (PICs) from the USA]). Green wrote,

The Training and Enterprise Councils(TECs) were designed as 'entrepreneurial and strategic level mechanisms for reversing Britain's skills deficit'. The TECs also enabled the government to remove union representatives from influencing and as the government saw it slowing down the training revolution required to develop a skilled and enterprising workforce...(p.83).

The TECS were to possess '...a determined leadership capable of affecting change, managing public funds and representing all sizes of firms as well as other community interests' (p.83). This leadership enabled it to be considered a very active partner in the 'new FE' after the future 1992 Act.

The 1988 Act confirmed many of the values of the Conservative Government. Ball (1990) suggested that there were several policies of the Government linked together: these were the elements of choice, competition, diversity, funding and organisation. There was also the opportunity for 'transparency' with which potential 'consumers' (in the new language of the market-place for education.) might be able to identify 'successful' colleges. Ranson (1994) had formed the opinion that, 'Colleges, too, were to be governed by equivalent formula funding arrangements and performance indicators were to be used to assess their efficiency' (p.79). It also emphasised a more market oriented approach which some saw as disastrous quite quickly. Among them was Gray (1992): 'The entrepreneurial opportunities which the Education reform Act

seemed to offer to at least some college managers has recently been tarnished.'

Hyland (1992) did not have a favourable view:

The 1988 Education Reform Act signally failed to address the problems of further education... (p.106)...The financial difficulties of a few colleges have been highly publicised and have drawn attention to the problems faced by public sector organisations when they try to operate like private centre businesses in a market economy, without shareholders or access to investment funds (p.211).

The Act did reflect Conservative policies and a harder approach to public spending that was not about to assist struggling education institutions. It appeared to be much more centred on the change in schools, with less commitment for further education. The reasoning for this may also be found within Ball (1990, p181) drawing on the words of a civil servant speaking about Kenneth Baker's style. 'He came with a harder heart...He may not have it 100% right now, it may be 80% right, but we'll have to tidy it up.' The 1992 Act gave him the opportunity to tidy up further education. Certainly the critics of the 1988 Act were not all impressed by the opportunities it afforded and with great foresight, Farley (1988) stated:

from the viewpoint of 2001 the Act is likely, as far as FE is concerned, to be seen as being very much a second order issue: neither so damaging and horrific as many of us feared, nor so radical and reforming as present government rhetoric would have us believe (p711).

Ainley (1990) wrote about his concerns of the new role of the principal although with the benefit of hindsight we now see that his picture of the new scene was not correct. As a senior manager in FE at the time the researcher was able to recognise that Ainley reflected a large body of opinion in colleges. Ainley felt that,

the principal of the college will no longer be both chief executive and leading professional chairperson of the academic board...he (typically) will be a business manager, hiring and firing staff at local rather than national rates. Success in running the business at a profit will determine whether the principal's rolling contract will be renewed by the board (p.94).

In some areas these values were 'enhanced' by the Keith Joseph long preferred option of Training Vouchers which could be traded in for post-16 education or Youth Training.

Alongside such educational management change came the personnel contractual change with the breakdown of collective bargaining powers. College managers were encouraged to introduce new teaching contracts for lecturers, increasing annual teaching hours and removing the conditions of service found in the 'Silver Book', the name given to the national agreement. These were changes that were not apparently widely welcomed even if they were meant to provide a more flexible approach to management in further education. It was suggested that the 1992 Act tidied up some of the shortcomings of the employment issues in the 1988 Act. However, some observers saw a number of issues before flexible employment was to become the norm and Graystone (1986) considered '...the confused situation of LEA as employer and governing body as appointee may lead to some interesting tribunal cases'(p.130). The same confusion, or worse, may also be found in the role of the principal in this new structure. As Farley (1988) points out:

There is potential conflict in the Act, within the strategic planning process, between college governors and those of the LEA in determining priorities within their plan. In this potential conflict will the tension be creative or will it drive the college principal - employed by the LEA but dismissable by the governors, and thereby caught in the middle- to early retirement(or worse!)? (p.716).

Others were not so circumspect, e.g. McLeod (1988), 'If I were a principal I would be looking forward to delegation' (p.701). This view was supported by the 'majority of principals' according to the findings of a survey of 175 colleges by KPMG Management Consultants (1990). They found that, 'The majority of colleges were

fairly positive about the future, generally believing that financial delegation would bring more opportunities' (p.6). Principals commented that although they could,

identify a number of constraints which, inevitably, are concerned primarily with future funding arrangements and physical resources, there is a cautious mood of optimism...further education is at long last reaching the political agenda (KPMG, 1991, p.37).

However, Nash (1990) recognised that such principals may not have seen the full implications of the Act, particularly in political terms:

colleges...are...experiencing the shift from an educational service provided for the public to one marketed to the public...Such a shift has profound implications for the personnel of educational establishments...It is not difficult to account for such developments. This is the era of Thatcherism: market forces and consumer sovereignty are unleashed in education as elsewhere (p.14).

The determination of the government to change post-16 education came to the fore with the introduction of the 1992 Act and Macfarlane (1993) identified:

There is no doubting the government's commitment to radical change of the education system; both the 1988 and 1992 Acts break new ground in their strategies for taking education reform out of the hands of the educationalists and driving the system in accordance with the economic principles of the market place (p.xiv).

Further impetus to the government's approach was in the form of the White Paper "Education and Training for the 21st Century" (DES, 1991) This developed the ideas of (i) giving colleges as much freedom as possible to manage their own affairs;(ii) encouraging the responsiveness of colleges to the needs of students, employers and the local community;(iii) promoting competitiveness and the effectiveness and efficiency of good management. This also supported the ideal of an 'enterprise culture' which Keats and Abercrombie (1991) saw as being marked by the widespread extension of the concept of market forces which was to be a model for the provision and consumption of all goods and services, including education. Boyd (1992) saw the 1980s as being a period when a sea change occurred in the perception of, and the

policy applied to, education. This change was succinctly summed up by the Director of the right-wing think tank - the Centre for Policy Studies - 'education would no longer be lead by producers, academic theorists, administrators or teachers' unions. It would be controlled by the consumer' (Letwin, 1992, p.244). Consumers here were not only the students, but perhaps more importantly the employers. One of the major employers, British Petroleum, between 1986 and 1992 carried out a series of research studies on education and training. They published their findings in 1993, and the first paragraph of the Executive summary went straight to the 'uncomfortable' point:

Britain's education and training system is an inefficient and confusing mess. As a result, more of our young people finish formal schooling earlier than in most other industrialised countries. To make matters worse, this lack of formal educational attainment is not offset by higher than average vocational training in later years (p.2).

One of the direct outcomes of the White Paper was a move to inject business relevance and market discipline into the educational arena, especially within FE. With the support of the CBI the government agreed to the launch of national targets for education and training, which were seen as, 'an integral part of Britain's training strategy since they quantify the challenge that faces all those who plan, provide or use vocational training' (Employment Department, 1994, p.7). This business approach came to its logical conclusion with the implementation of the Further and Higher Education Act 1992.

Post-Incorporation Perspective

The Further and Higher Education Act 1992 came into force on April 1st.1993 and with it new powers and new responsibilities that were outlined in the White Paper: 'Education and Training for the 21st Century' The Act set out a number of strategies:-

- The creation of a new sector with unified statutory framework, with sixth form colleges having the same status as further education colleges.
- Colleges to become corporate bodies having their own legal identity with charitable status, and responsibility for their own financial affairs, staff and buildings.
- A Funding Council for England to allocate resources; advise on reorganisation, mergers, closures; and assess quality.
- The Funding Council to be assisted by nine Regional Advisory Committees each of which will have two representatives from TECs.
- Governing bodies of colleges to be reconstituted having at least one TEC representative (but not necessarily anyone from the LEA).
- Funding to come mainly from the Funding Council, but colleges are encouraged to attract money from other sources and be free to charge what private fees the market will bear.
- Funding Council to fund vocational and other specified courses, but non-examined adult education to remain within the LEA.
- Colleges are expected to work closely with TECs.
- Staff transferred to this new sector on existing pay and conditions but direct negotiations between employers and employees to be encouraged.

organisations future. The vision becomes a reality when the leader builds a culture that is dedicated to the vision' (p.588). According to Fullan (1991) this vision 'should permeate the organisation with values, purposes and integrity for both the what and how of improvement' (p.81). Bennis and Nanus (1985) suggest that the effective leader has a unique dream or vision, which helps in describing a view of an attractive and attainable future for the organisation which acts as, or should be used as, a way of motivating members of an organisation. Lawler (1984), Gardner (1995) too consider that vision is a vital quality of leadership; as Gardner wrote,

I construe leadership as a transaction that occurs within (and between) the minds of leaders and followers. A leader is an individual who creates a story - a mental representation - that significantly affects the thoughts, behaviours, and feelings - the mental representations - of a significant number of persons (p.15). (In this statement the term interaction may be more appropriate than that of transaction)

Story sharing, i.e. a way of illustrating and describing a vision, is one of the communication functions of a leader and Fullan (1982) found openness of communication and collaboration were features of schools in which the management of change was being carried out successfully.

Trow (1985) wrote of leadership in higher education in the USA and argues, that 'leadership is an essential aspect of American higher education and nowhere more so than in the case of the Chief Executive' (p.142). He further describes that the form of leadership:

shows itself along four dimensions - symbolic, political, managerial and academic:

symbolic leadership is the ability to express, to project the character and direction of the institution, its central goals and values;

political leadership is the ability to resolve the conflicting demands of his many constituencies, and in gaining their support for the institution's goals and purposes;

forms and Adult Education) through Local Education Authorities; and introspective because it exalts inter-institutional competition and the ability of colleges to survive as businesses rather than strategic planning on a co-ordinated basis (p.11).

In a survey prior to the Act, Tysome (1992) found that college principal's attitudes to the future of the sector was supportive of the idea of independence from LEAs. This was perhaps just as well, as the Act made further education and sixth form colleges independent, incorporated bodies directly funded and controlled by a new quango, the Further Education Funding Council (FEFC). This FEFC had the statutory duties 'to fund most types of further education and to secure sufficient facilities for the provision of further education in England' (FEFC, 1992, p.12). Part of this process was to expose colleges to what was seen as the benefits arising from the competitive edge of the market-place, and for them to respond to this exposure by adopting 'business models' that fostered survival and growth through planned efficiency and effectiveness. Roberts (1994) points out 'The greatest change that has hit FE is the introduction of responsibility. This arrived on 1 April 1993 and colleges' management have been trying to face up to this ever since' (p.10). As might be expected, such a dramatic change for the FE system required and still requires enormous support. To identify their new tasks and the level of assistance required to manage this new world the FEFC called in a number of consultants to survey the state of further education and draw up action plans for its future. As Gorrington (1993) points out, 'Interestingly the new management needs were channelled into some clear, but very limited categories, especially by management consultants retained by the government' (p.5). The Articles within the Act identified and spelled out the roles and responsibilities of its managers. This 1992 Act stated:

The Principal shall be the Chief Executive of the institution, and shall be responsible

‘(a) for making proposals to the Corporation about the educational character and mission of the institution, and for implementing the decisions of the Corporation;

(b) for the organisation, direction and management of the institution and leadership of the staff (p11)(Schedule 2 Articles of Government, Clause 3 part(2)).

Hence further education has a new national body and new corporate bodies with responsibility for the service. All have big strides to make in the development of the service, some facing these with trepidation, some with excitement. As with any change some saw opportunities and some saw threats in what they were about to face. The FEFC on being set up resolved to communicate very closely with all the further education institutions by meeting them face to face at national conferences; with reports, advice notes, consultation documents; with seminars and workshops all aided by visiting consultants some from private industry, some from the FEFC. Governors were presented with a guide to governance to aid them in their work and to clearly explain their responsibility. Colleges received (and continue to receive) recommended frameworks for quality improvement, new models of funding and accounting practice; new resource methodologies; new information systems; new performance criteria against which colleges might judge or be judged. The colleges would now have autonomy and will become responsible for improving efficiency. It also, according to Green (1995) placed FE, ‘...for the first time at the centre of the strategy for achieving higher levels of skill and qualifications’ (p.ii). From the Government, via letters and memoranda from the Secretary of State, colleges received direction and outline on the employment conditions, rates of pay and negotiation parameters of staffing. They also received very clear directives on the growth rate in student numbers on further education for the three years 1993-96 and the penalties if such growth did not occur.

An editorial in the THES (March 1994) noted ‘...colleges are expected to make efficiency gains of 5 per cent per year - a tighter squeeze than that on universities which are more generously funded in the first place’ (p.13). This produced a new climate of management in colleges from the belligerent to the responsive, as was noted in a brief survey of principals by Hyland and Turner (1995). One principal stated, ‘Interference by LEA Officers has been replaced by greater bureaucracy, interference and control. They [FEFC] are not experts in education - they are a self perpetuating QUANGO’ (p.40). In contrast another said, ‘Incorporation has encouraged diversification and strengthened management procedures. There is freedom to control development’ (p.41).

The TES (15 April 1994) provided a summary of further education developments one year after the Act in which it suggested that:

Ambiguity - and paradox - have been the hallmarks of the first year of college incorporation, ...Some colleges entered the post incorporation period enthusiastically, delighted to be “free” of the LEA, others cautiously, ...Enthusiasm and pragmatism, and a determination to succeed was the order of the day...Pressures to expand, to produce annual efficiency savings, to deliver a more relevant curriculum, to compete yet collaborate, to be answerable to the funding councils, local and national government bodies and to remain responsive to the needs of the community comprise the every day challenge colleges have to meet...(p.ii).

In April 1995 the Chief Executive of the FEFC commented:

With the further education sector firmly established and coherent national infrastructure in place for both funding and information, colleges are now well placed to focus their energies on some of the broader issues. From the Council’s perspective, the most important of these are quality and the expansion of further education opportunities...The Council does not underestimate the challenges presented by growth and, for some colleges, the extent of the efficiency savings which need to be made...The next two or three years will inevitably continue to be difficult for many colleges (pii).

Some of these difficulties were spelled out in the THES (18 March 1994):

Colleges face further problems of resentment from local authorities which formerly controlled them. New voices on governing bodies, battles over contracts of employment, increased spending on managers all give cause for local conflicts...To make matters worse, colleges operate in a part of the market where everything is in flux. Vocational qualifications are in an early stage of development and subject to widespread criticism. Training and Enterprise Councils, which are both potential clients and rivals, are under scrutiny and likely to be reorganised. New apprenticeships are to be introduced with the role of colleges as yet undefined (p.13).

The incorporation of colleges as might be expected has brought a mixed reaction from corporation members, senior managers and staff. There are those who have seen it as a welcome release of resources and talent and those who see it as a ploy to privatise education and dilute the education profession. It is certainly not an Act that has passed unnoticed by colleges or the communities they serve. The Act has maintained the process of change in further education with a momentum that appears to be increasing annually. Judith Round (1994) 'The next 12 months are going to be very difficult ones for college managers - probably the most difficult they have ever had to face' (p.1).

Perhaps some imagined that on April 1, 1993 stability and sanity would return to colleges. Certainly a great many managers envisaged a 'bedding down' of the new order by the end of the year. The Government was certainly buoyant about the 'New' FE and Boswell (1993) was happy to report,

...the individual FE colleges and corporations have their independent governance - they have been given a new role by the Secretary of State. We are putting more money into them for a considerable increase in student numbers. We are giving them a greater prominence through new vocational qualifications and recognising the fact that they are major deliverers of 'A' Level as well (p.2).

In fact, 1994 dawned with more uncertainty, more rapid change, and more threats of unrest than in any previous period. Coburn (1994) commented,

The next few years will continue to be probationary for further education. We are finding the called-for 8% increase in student numbers no easy task; the competition from neighbouring colleges, including sixth forms, is intense and escalating (p.ii).

This was forecast by Grey(1992) who claimed,

FE is a complex and changing kaleidoscope of activities, which change more regularly and more readily than in other parts of the educational jungle. The 1992 legislation provides yet another shake of the kaleidoscope, with some new and exciting patterns visible, but little likelihood that the kaleidoscope will not shortly be shaken again (p.214).

The horizon will constantly recede; the reality is dawning that change will be perpetual. The following year Ms. Rounds's prediction appeared to come to fruition as Patricia Harkin (1995) stated 'Living with anxiety has become one of the more familiar aspects of life in further education in the last few years' (p.4). The reason for the concern was in part because of the lack of preparedness felt by those in FE for the demands of incorporation, not simply because it was yet more change but because in many cases the skills had not been learned during those changes to prepare them appropriately for incorporation. Shackleton (1992) shared her concerns at a conference on the new financial resourcing models for FE post-incorporation arguing that:

...I would argue that we are as a result of our history and current circumstances, significantly unprepared conceptually and also under-skilled and under-powered when it comes to make the most of the new opportunities and constraints which will accompany the incorporation of FE colleges (p.256).

These comments emphasise the difficulties that have to be overcome in achieving what the Government has certainly seen as a success. But at least one principal saw

this success in a less than optimistic light, Flint (1994) declaring, 'One of the difficulties is that there is still an imperfect understanding of the work of further education.' p.vi The Minister was not to be put off his stride by such negativity, James Paice (1995) stating,

I am in no doubt as to the great achievements that have taken place over the past few years. The surge in student numbers, and the sheer vitality of colleges which we have seen since the creation of the new FE sector make for a tremendous success story (p.40).

There were exceptions to this picture. The dowdy image of FE as suggested by Kenneth Baker in 1988 was difficult to shake off. Gorringer (1993) describes it as '...the slightly dour and dusty, or perhaps, oily, world of FE' (p.4) and he was a principal at the time! Alison Utley (1994) reported the results of a survey carried out by the FEFC which asked students coming to the end of their compulsory schooling how they decided on the next steps:

the students perceive a clear pecking order in terms of academic standards - schools first, then sixth form colleges then further education colleges...Traditional perceptions prevail that further education colleges focus on vocational qualifications and that these are of lower esteem than academic qualifications (p.viii.).

These traditional perceptions of qualifications were completely unfounded as there was a myriad of new vocational qualifications that were based on a number of experiments, developments and government research and political decisions. New National Vocational Qualifications were being developed and more widely accepted; new General National Vocational Qualifications were being considered specifically for post-16 year olds in schools and colleges as alternative 'A' Levels.

If it is such a success story perhaps the fears of principals may not be the fears of change but of what might result from change. 'Change isn't the challenge. The

challenge is doing something about change' (Banach and Lorenzo, 1993, p.6). The FEFC spelled out the harsh facts of the new FE sector in an analysis of colleges' 1995 forecasts. These forecasts contain college projections of their financial positions for July 1995 and their forecasts up to and including 1997-98. The largest group of colleges (263 or 63%) was in strong financial state, but the analysis confirms that the financial state of the sector is deteriorating. 48 colleges (11%) appeared to be in relatively weak financial positions. The forecasts of 115 colleges (27%) suggest that significant adverse variances in their assumptions could limit their ability to deliver their strategic plans.(FEFC, 1995, p.6) Foskett and Hesketh (1996) also highlight financial issues, 'Whilst institutions stretch almost to breaking point under the pressure of record numbers of students, no fewer than 40 FE colleges allegedly face crippling financial circumstances' (p.22).

A college governor, Peter Howlett (1996), readily agreed with the FEFC analysis by confirming,

These are difficult times for colleges. Financial pressures and the inevitable industrial relations and other issues which budget decisions generate are part and parcel of the burden which college managers must shoulder. The Principal and senior management team can often seem to be an isolated and somewhat beleaguered group, whose recommendations and decisions are rarely going to please every one and frequently please no one (p.11).

One of the answers appears to be one of change the organisation, in spite of the disruption that might cause. In a survey of colleges in 1990, i.e. prior to incorporation,

only 62% of principals believed that they and their senior management team had the vision and skills they needed to manage the college efficiently. Yet 80% of these colleges had changed their structure or mode of operation since January 1991 (KPMG,1990, p.2).

The responsibility for such results is that of the Principal for whom the Act has dramatically increased responsibility and accountability. The way in which their role is carried out is being more closely scrutinised than at any time in the past. It is also being criticised. Tim Nicholls (1994) suggests that,

The advantages of incorporation are potentially immense; in practice, they are often misused by college principals who, as educationalists, are not always competent in their roles of managing directors of multi-million pound companies. The level of autonomy allows principals excessive scope to indulge personal preferences which may not encourage professionalism. The power of principals is too often being exercised with ruthlessness and contempt for individuals, no matter how strong their cases may be (p.28).

But Reich (1988) reminded principals that popularity will not always be available: 'A leader must be willing to take unpopular stands when they are necessary...and to explain it to the people, solicit their support, and win their approval' (p.38). As yet, there is little evidence of principals heeding that advice although the FEFC are attempting to explain their unpopular decisions by providing large amounts of written information via newsletters, circulars and briefing papers. However unpopularity continues to smoulder consistently in many colleges on the issue of lecturer's contracts with a principal being reported as saying, 'The situation is a mess. Ordinary managers and ordinary lecturers are stuck in the middle' THES (17 March 1995, p.5). In part this was brought about by a group decision of a large number of colleges which set up the Colleges Employers' Forum (CEF) in an effort to have a body with some unanimity to represent the new employment responsibilities of the colleges. In part it was brought about by the Secretary of State withholding £50 million from recurrent funding for 1995-96 pending colleges' assurance that they are making satisfactory progress in introducing flexible contracts for staff. This holdback was set out in a

letter to the FEFC from Tim Boswell the Parliamentary Under Secretary of State for Further and Higher Education in December 1994:

Ministers' intention is that grant should be released as each college certifies its commitment that new or amended contracts entered into with lecturers on or after 1 April 1995... are no less flexible in their overall effect than the contracts signed with newly appointed lecturers on or after 1 April 1994 (From FEFC Circular, 2 May 1995, p2).

Longhurst (1996) thought that FE 'has been transformed into a commodity and this means that FE teachers are exploited' (p.49). There have been changes in the employment of staff in further education as a consequence of the Act as some individual corporations have negotiated locally with staff on new employment contracts and some have negotiated through a national body The Colleges Employers Forum (CEF) with the national unions of FE lecturers (e.g. NATFHE) and non lecturers (e.g. UNISON). This has meant differences from college to college and an increasingly tense time between managers and lecturing staff as each group endeavours to wield either local or national power to their benefit and ultimately to the benefit of their 'customers'. Managers within NATFHE were still seeking pay rises and changes in conditions of service as a result of changes caused by incorporation in Feb. 1998. NATFHE (1998):

1998 will see the fifth anniversary of college's incorporation. As the sector prepares to face the new challenges presented by government initiatives, the evidence suggests that the breadth and quality of provision will be threatened if a number of pay and condition issues are not addressed (p.1).

The comments from Nicholls and Longhurst above, i.e. 'worker criticising manager', epitomise the attitudes of a substantial section of the business community to their leadership in Britain; perhaps the government expectation of a 'business like approach' encouraged by the act has not only brought with it the best of business

practice but also some of the failings of British industrial practice. Robert Heller (1996) in presenting the findings of his research work with businesses across Europe discovered that the British respected their managers less than in any other European country. These criticisms are perhaps indicators of the pressure experienced by many businesses in Britain as well as that of further education colleges during their change process - a change that is promoted by the Government which is encouraging colleges to increase participation, drive down unit costs and provide a better quality service. This is not a change that is exclusively British, the leaders of American Community Colleges too face great changes. Lorenzo and LeCroy (1994) stated that in the process of recognising change '...the college comes to understand that its on going viability depends on how well it can adjust to changes. Perhaps the central tension that leaders sensed was their own lack of sophistication in seeing and understanding all the relationships' (p.4.). To some extent principals in Britain have a clearer picture to work with as the Government has emphasised the 'rules' via the FEFC. A major framework for leadership is the new funding methodology that increasingly focuses on output-related funding and National Targets for Education and Training. The Chairperson of the Council responsible for setting and renewing the targets readily stated why they were needed and colleges should be working towards them, Wanless (1995) declaring that:

education and training have long been areas of relative weakness for Britain. That is why Britain has adopted national targets for education and training. They reflect what Britain needs to achieve, if we are to keep up with our competitors (p.7).

Those in further education did not seem fazed by the targets but by the resources proposed for further education. Some recognised the task in front of them was not

simply managing a curriculum but of extending their range of working practices.

Calvert(1994) put forward the proposition that

Developing good relations with a whole range of stakeholders has always been important for further education colleges but the introduction of corporate status and funding mechanisms linked to achieving targets has made this even more critical (p.v).

Some were not surprised by the changes, e.g. Bernard's (1994) claim, 'We have seen, since the early year of Thatcher administration, conflicting objectives of expanding education places and reduction in the financial support available' (p.x.). Some clearly recognised and were willing to state the political ideology behind the decisions. Anne Nicholls (1994) wrote that she thought,

the hidden agenda in the announcements in the budgets for colleges in the new further education sector was clear: those colleges who had succeeded in increasing their student numbers while keeping their costs down were to be handsomely rewarded with more money. This was no budget to help the needy or bail out those in trouble - it was 'survival of the fittest' (p.9).

There are those who would confirm that this payment by results approach is just the discipline that is required by a public body. Drucker (1989) felt that service organisations did not have a good record of effective performance, not because of the alibis they offered that they were not a business or because their output or results are intangible and incapable of definition, but because they are not financed on the basis of results. That hurdle to effectiveness has been overcome all too rapidly in the eyes of some principals.

Prior to 1993, financial pressures were on the LEA and not on individual colleges. Governors and principals could always blame the LEA for financial shortfalls. They must now learn to lead and manage in this new financially conscious and competitive

environment. The warnings, if warnings were needed, were sounded in several journals including this comment in College Management Today (1994): 'The new funding mechanism introduced by the FEFC aimed at expanding the sector through a tariff of funding has accentuated the competitive climate. Colleges are having to change their curricula and programme to maximise funding' (p.13). The messages appeared to be loud and clear enough not only for principals but for all college staff and they must recognise the cultural change that is or will be taking place. Liston (1995) reported a comment by Keith Norris, Deputy Principal, Doncaster College,

The move will necessarily be away from claiming college resources to an acceptance of the associated costs. Effectively, we will operate an internal competitive market where managers at all levels will be aware of their costs, as well as their performance (p.17).

The costs and other data will have to be compared with other colleges as a form of benchmarking that will enable governors and senior managers of colleges in particular to judge their improvement or lack of it against similar institutions. Elliot and Crossley (1994) argued that incorporation has forced college principals to satisfy external performance indicators. They also suggest that principals may be tempted to inform and validate policy by the use of qualitative data. It is of course sound business practice to manage by facts and to use quantitative data as those 'facts' and perhaps Elliot and Crossley were following the familiar 'education route' of dismissing business practice as unsound educational practice. Yet, in interviews with 15 principals after incorporation, Jephcote (1996) observed '...a marked shift on the part of principals from the provider-led dependency culture to the culture of the business entrepreneur operating in a competitive market' (p.46). It is suggested that this shift may be accelerated by new corporation members from private business. Graham (1997) in his interviews with principals on their feelings about incorporation

noted the comments of two of them on governors and governance, 'We have now got a governing body of hard-nosed businessmen[who] really have not got the feel for education' (p549)... 'One of the weaknesses is that they're mainly more concerned with money than anything else' (p.550). This concern for money is common in other organisations and in the journal Bulletpoint its editor identified that a modern CEO 'now acts as a financial guardian: watching...numbers and allocating resources' (p.8).

Graham (1997) identified that

...principals were unanimous in their perception of the new governor as typically being financially aware and experienced, with often an additional area of expertise in, for example, law, personnel management, estate management etc....with a growing awareness by the corporate boards of the essential business of a college of further education, principals were generally appreciative of the new relationship...(p.551).

All of the principals he interviewed stated that they welcomed their release from the management of further education by the LEAs. Such management, in their view, had often been politically inspired, with a disproportionate amount of resource and effort being directed at the school sector with its large, politically influential, parental electorate. On the other hand, many regret that the councillors and officers had been so uncooperative, even hostile, when faced with the new changes which had resulted in mutual isolation which in the principals' view, could only be to the detriment of the individual student facing choices at 16+. They saw the new corporate boards, which were composed largely of volunteers from industry and commerce, as very different in ability and character from the old councillor-dominated governing bodies. Although principals now felt themselves more accountable, predominantly though not exclusively in terms of financial management, few if any would wish to return to the previous arrangement. Most principals recognised that the immediate post-incorporation period represented, 'a transitory phase in which the new governors and

the new-style principal were learning about each other's needs, responsibilities and sense of mission' (Graham, 1997,p.560). They were learning too about the enormous power and duties that they had under the 1992 Further and Higher Education Act and that 'the role of governing bodies, and principals as chief executives of the new corporate institutions, is now of crucial significance' (p.38).

Further Education from incorporation to the millennium

Leadership in further education, as in other organisations has a number of factors that impinge upon its style and approach, and some have greater influence than others. Anthony Woolard (1983), a senior officer for the DES, was unequivocal in stating, 'the most effective colleges ...seem to be those where the principal has taken a direct and personal interest...there is no substitute for commitment from the top' (p.102). Whilst he was talking about the principals in colleges, it is likely to be equally as relevant a message to government.

This commitment from the top may now be seen from the present government which is a new Labour Government that came to power in May 1997 bringing with it new ideas and new goals for education. 'Education, education, education! This was New Labour's main priority when it came to government' (Neale, 1998,p.29). This Government is able to build upon more than five years of experience of incorporated colleges. But has this experience been a successful beginning and does it afford a suitable basis for development - and has leadership been a part of this success, or failure? Davies Lord (1998) in his introductory comments to the FEFC Annual Conference, 12 February 1998 stated,

...the 1992 Act shows that the previous government had identified its point of departure, but not its destination. That government saw itself as responsible only for the creation of autonomous corporations, not to providing many sign posts (p2).

The suggestion in his speech was that principals at least felt they had not been clearly led by the previous government or were perhaps providing an excuse for some of the other facts on colleges that were to follow in the conference. Kennedy (1997) concurs

and notes, ‘...in the rush away from planning and the heavy hand of the state, no clear strategic overview was developed, nor any statement of an overarching purpose made’ (p.4).

But, there was a new beginning for colleges in 1993, however inadequate the current group of principals consider it to have been. They are certainly mixed in their views.

The quotation from Conroy et al (1993) illustrated the feeling at the start:

The picture we have is of a vigorous, fast-growing sector in which principals...are playing a key role in harnessing and managing the finite human, financial and physical resources in order to meet challenging growth and productivity targets set by the Funding Council (p.6).

However, one year on, others were not as buoyant. For example Turner (1994) was very critical of the changes in FE as a result of incorporation when he recognised that,

for a few - perhaps too many- incorporation has not brought much joy. It has meant more tension, more stress and a growing feeling of measurable added responsibility coupled with increasing isolation (p.2).

This was recognised by others. Perhaps speaking for many staff, Nicholls (1994) considered that although there were potentially immense advantages in incorporation such development had not taken place because he saw college principals misusing the opportunities afforded by not providing the leadership expected. There were discussions in the press, and the TES concluded that it was not only the incompetence of principals but also their lack of morals. ‘Further education leaders will ruin an unprecedented opportunity to put the sector at the heart of the “lifelong learning revolution” if they do not clean up their act’ (p.5) reported Baty (1998) in summarising the views of the FEFC and reinforced by his reporting of the comments of David Melville the Chief Executive of the FEFC. After receiving letters from

principals and chairs of governors wanting to know the precise legal definitions of what is required of them, he responded with, 'The meeting of legal requirements is a necessary but insufficient basis for good practice.' What he could have added was that corporations which clearly set out their vision and values and use them follow sound leadership practice. Evidence of a lowering of standards of leadership at six colleges were listed in the TES, February 20, 1998 in which were descriptions of misdemeanours ranging from suggested nepotism to fraud.

Many principals found the new demands of a chief executive too much and between Dec.96 to Feb. 97 more than 30 principals announced their resignations and 'more are expected to make public their decision to leave before the end of term' (p.1) reported FE Now! in Feb 97. After such promise what went wrong? Was it poor leadership?

According to Gold (1998)

Over 60% of colleges are trading at a loss, with one in five in a seriously weak financial situation, according to FEFC figures...One in five colleges has difficulty recruiting and retaining managers, over a third are experiencing shortages of lecturers and one in four cannot fill curriculum support posts (p.5).

The lack of funding continues to be a major concern and a major reason for the demise of FE. Part of the responsibility of successful leaders is to ensure that their organisation operates within the constraints in place rather than complaining the constraints should be changed. An editorial in FE Now! of June 1998 it stated that 'despite the fact that colleges as a whole have made 28% efficiency savings since incorporation, the sector is essentially in the red, with accumulated losses amounting to £250 million in the last four years' (p 7). Certainly there did appear to be a need for more financial acumen on the part of colleges with Bob Bennett (1997), the President of the Association of Principals of Colleges, warning any who would listen that 'it

will put a great deal of pressure on governing bodies to find people who have the right sort of background in management skills, and particularly the financial management experience needed in the uncertain period ahead' (p.1). This research has I think shown the short-sightedness of a view of leadership which considers it is solely dependent upon one skill or factor.

The current state of play in FE was summed up somewhat despairingly in an article by the recently retired Chief Inspector for the FEFC, Melia (1998), and placed the lack of leadership not on government or the FEFC but squarely on the shoulders of principals. He does not appear to share any responsibility for the state of FE in spite of being responsible for its quality assurance for the first four years of incorporation; he painted a less than inspiring picture of the FE scene.

My sadness was associated with the way in which the further education sector, following the heady early days of incorporation, managed to slump into an era of depression from which it is only now beginning to recover. What went wrong? Was it all the fault of a funding council that encouraged calculated risk-taking in which the council did the calculations and senior college managers took the risks? Or was it the fault of the new brigade of besuited senior managers with their mobile phones and their BMWs who, in confusing the words business-like and businesses, appeared to know the cost of everything and the value of nothing. In their confusion, such managers adopted all the worst elements of business practice: they neglected the principal deliverers of their core business, the teachers, and casualised their labour in a sector where continuity is essential; they managed through threats rather than encouragement; they made changes not aimed at improving the provision, but rather making it cheap and sometimes tatty: and, in some of the worst cases, snouts were put in the trough and the sector's reputation for sleaze was born (p.30).

The attributes described by Melia were not those identified in the questionnaire. They were also not areas of FEFC review i.e. leadership in 'Assessing Achievement' (FEFC, 1993) the guidelines to inspection he was party to setting up in 1993, although the FEFC Inspectorate continue to use it in their commentaries on colleges.

Being 'business-like' is certainly a term used in discussing the current state of colleges but is used in a derogatory way and rather like Melia, Kennedy (1997) also makes comment, 'However, there is also growing disquiet that the new ethos has encouraged colleges not just to be businesslike but to perform as if they were businesses' (p.3). Not unexpectedly, principals and other members of the FEFC and government have different points of view. As a spokesperson for the principals in FE the President of the Association of Principals of Colleges(APC) stated at the APC Annual Conference, 1997, 'The APC needs to continue to provide leadership and clarity around the key role of the FE sector' (p10). The General Secretary of the largest FE union (National Association of Teachers in Further and Higher Education) disagreed with the idea of continued leadership as he doubted if it was there in the first place. He was in agreement with Melia and suggested that five years' independence had wreaked havoc on FE colleges. Mackney (1998) elaborated:

And the lack of investment to prepare colleges and their managers for the new era led to clumsy, even damaging, ways of doing things. In the worst cases, ill-thought-out systems allowed sleaze and poor practice (p.13).

Yet at the APC conference, Baroness Blackstone, Minister of State for Education and Employment in her speech spoke of the qualities of further education, 'in the last few years, the role of senior managers...has developed markedly. This government is determined to raise the profile and status of FE'. Another effusive in his praise was Melville (1997) the chief executive of the FEFC,

Much has been achieved during the last four years since incorporation. It has built on the rich heritage of LEAs and is creating a sector that is continuing to blossom and mature' (p.39).

This would indicate that it depends where you are in the structure of FE as to whether you consider FE since incorporation to be a success or not

It is a sector that the new Labour Government appears to wish to understand. For assistance in providing appropriate policies it is helpful for the Government to use the information from a number of public reports. One such is the report on the widening of participation of education in which the Chair of the working party, Helena Kennedy QC, used a number of definitions of FE and produced an interesting 'potted history of FE' She discovered that,

defining FE exhaustively would be God's own challenge because it is such a large and fertile section of the education world. Yet despite the formidable role played by FE, it is the least understood and celebrated part of the learning tapestry (Kennedy, 1998, p.1).

This may be another indication of the need to understand and make greater use of the opportunities within FE or that it is recognised as being different and will be set to one side as in previous governments. They may, however, be indications that this Government is more determined to understand and lead FE than some of its predecessors.

The new government is taking its responsibilities seriously and the Secretary of State for Education and Employment was very quick to write to all colleges and offer the Government's support for the development of FE. In August 1997 all principals received a copy of a letter from the Secretary of State for Education and Employment which he had sent to the chairman of the FEFC for distribution to all principals. In this he stated,

...the very great importance I attach to the contribution of FE to 16-19 education and training and to lifelong learning...Further education is at the centre of the learning society we want to create. That is why FE is of such potential importance to the delivery of the New Deal[a government initiative for 18-24 year old unemployed to enable them to return to work or receive training for work]... FE is a key element in

our education and training strategy. I look to the Council[FEFC] and especially the colleges themselves to help my Ministerial colleagues and me to raise the profile of further education in the wider community and thereby enable it to take its place alongside the schools and higher education sectors whose work is perhaps better known.

Baroness Blackstone, Minister of State for Education and Employment, maintained the Government momentum at the APC conference 1997 in reporting,

It is just 29 days since I was appointed Minister of State at the Department for Education and Employment. I am still caught up, as I hope you are, in the excitement of the new possibilities that have opened up. A new Government with a resounding popular mandate, and with education at the centre of its programme...This Government is determined to raise the profile of FE...Working in partnership we can move towards the goal of further education being at the heart of a learning society in this country as we approach the millennium (p.14-15).

The first White Paper of the new Labour Government was almost a rallying cry for those in education or, in management terms, it provided a vision for education to which all should be able to contribute. In the foreword to the document the Secretary of State began with

Lifting the morale and motivation of those who work in our schools, colleges and education authorities is as much about self-esteem and a belief that we really can succeed, as it is about anything central government can do. That is why, in offering a “can do” Government, we are asking for a “can do” profession. This is a partnership between Government and the education service between LEAs and schools, parents and school governors. I ask you to join with us in using your own creativity to answer as well as ask questions. In this way we can work together to meet the challenge and to attain the solution.

He thus set out a policy that was dependent upon cooperation and not competition and which endeavoured to respect the role of teachers. This was reinforced within the document by reporting the view of the Prime Minister, ‘Our first principle is to ensure that education must be at the heart of Government The Prime Minister made it clear that education is the Government’s number one priority’ (p.11).

Fryer(1998), who was a member of a government working party on lifelong learning, seemed enthused by the future of FE under the new Government and felt,

David Blunket's Green Paper, 'The Learning Age' is a cause for celebration and an energising spur to action. It represents a powerful and welcome signal for a major national campaign for lifelong learning. [It] is inspiring in its vision and inclusive in its scope. It constitutes a valuable rallying point for all who recognise that progress towards a learning society will require massive and widespread cultural change. Above all, the Green Paper constitutes a decisive shift of focus from the narrow, insipid document on 'lifetime' learning shuffled out by the previous government, under Gillian Shephard's timorous guidance. Mr Blunkett's expansive perspective embraces not only our economic future, but also learning's contribution to building a civilised society, and its role in developing 'the spiritual side of our lives'...(p.10).

MPs in the new Labour Government were quick to offer their views and knowledge of further education and one of them, Hodge (1998), who was also the chairperson of the select committee on education and employment, wrote of her and the Labour Party's New Third Way in the TES,

For instance, the traditional class analysis that distinguished Left and Right is less relevant to us today in a global, multi-cultural and fast-changing society. Similarly, the traditional divide between those on the Right, who despise public services and believe in the supremacy of the free market, and those on the Left who demonise private enterprise and espouse the cause of state socialism, is no longer helpful. Both ideologies have failed. If we discard these old theories, what can now underpin our approach to achieve our enduring aim of opportunity for the many, not the few...I would pick four strands in the new thinking. First, pragmatism has replaced ideology. It is what works that counts. Who provides it and how it is provided is not so important. Second, the focus is on outcomes, not inputs; on the consumer/citizen, not the producer. Third, the new thinking is about breaking down divisions between public and private, recognising the strengths of both and developing new partnerships that capture the best of each sector. Fourth, the Third Way emphasises a balance between rights and responsibilities, both for the individual and for the family, the Third way does not mean abandoning our principles. Education is our top priority. We still see education as creating opportunity and ensuring social justice (p.12).

The thoughts of an important leader of education are here very clearly spelled out.

The influence of such vision and values will unfold over the next few years.

In her role as chair of a select committee Hodge set up a review of further education.

The so called Hodge Report, the Education and Employment Select Committee's blueprint for the future of further education presented to Parliament in June 1998 advocated a huge cash injection and a raft of new legislation, 'which together could prove the catalyst for the biggest reforms to hit FE since incorporation in 1993' (as reported in the TES 12 June 1998, p.33) The Report says the sector has suffered from a lack of leadership and strategy. 'There has been a significant hole in Government policy in respect of further education' (p.33). It proposed greater accountability and transparency in administration following a number of highly publicised cases of mismanagement. Margaret Hodge said the Report presented the Government with major challenges.

Further education is vital to its goal of creating a culture of lifelong learning. For too long FE has been the Cinderella of British education. This report...will help give it the high status it deserves(p.33)...further education is a locally responsive service: the Government's role should be to put in place a strategic framework that will promote effective local relationships (p.35).

The editorial highlighted the Report's recognition that there should be new legislation to ensure openness and accountability within FE and that it should be introduced to counteract the worst excesses of the post-incorporation culture change. The Report says the present system made it 'too easy for governors and principals to bend or break the rules without anyone intervening at an early stage'(p.33).

Such rule breaking was a mixture of incompetence, carelessness and poor management, according to press reports in the TES and some national newspapers and journals. Some of it was also due to naiveté or a lack of business awareness or systems in the colleges, something that took some principals unawares as they thought they might have expected their governors to help them provide more business like systems and attitudes.

Chapter Two

Leadership in further education: A review of the literature

Throughout further education it has been recognised that new approaches to meet Government demands or perhaps the societal demand of being 'customer focused' have to be put in place. Some leaders had anticipated the direction and approach of the winds of change and set out to remove some of the long standing edifices of further education in their own institutions. Tony Pitcher, Principal of South East Essex College, was reported in the TES in Oct. 93 as changing old style practices, traditional teaching methods, relationships with students and the entire management structure. 'A cultural change swept through the corridors. He declared that staff should not be alarmed about what we are moving out of but energetic about what we are driving into' (p.22). The characteristic of energy and hard work were two of the attributes teachers said were part of being an effective headteacher i.e. the attributes of a school leader, reported Riley (1998) from research into school leadership in Canada. Was this the leadership the Government imagined in the introduction of the Act? Could the Government have anticipated such dynamic reaction to their edict?

In considering what sort of leadership or what characteristics or style of leader is required in this post-incorporation of FE the Government would have been able to draw on a wide range of information, in particular from management and organisation development literature and research. Some of this work might enable it to classify leaders and perhaps specify a preferred type. For example, a more recent attempt at some sort of classification is by Cooper and Dodge, (1995) who, in their work on strategic planning with senior managers and staff in three colleges, noted the need for

change and the way in which leadership might influence the changes. They identified three distinct management approaches to the nature of leadership in strategic planning which they loosely characterised as:

Humanist - management set out to create a culture which fosters openness and the right condition for individual learning and growth;
Managerialist - the role of leadership here was to perceive the changes demanded by the environment, define the new direction and purpose of the college within this context, and reorientate staff towards that purpose;
Pragmatist - linked whole college planning process, cross-college teams and the creation of space for individual creativity to a perceived need to make fundamental change in a large organisation (p.33).

There is of course no preferred type specified by the Government although there may be by those who have to recruit leaders for colleges. The use of the word leader may itself provide problems, particularly as until recently in Britain it has not been fashionable to use the term leader; much more likely perhaps is the use of the term manager or senior manager.

Some researchers see clear differences between management and leadership. The most quoted and possibly most vehement researcher is Kotter (1990a) who states:

...leadership and management differ in terms of their primary function. The first can produce useful change, the second can create orderly results which keep something working efficiently...leadership by itself never keeps an operation on time and on budget year after year. And management by itself never creates significant useful change (p.28).

Others too, for example Zaleznik (1977), had argued that a distinction should be made between management and leadership and observed '...managers and leaders are very different kinds of people. They differ in motivation, personal history, and how they think and act' (p.70). Bennis and Nanus (1985) noted the difference, 'Managers do things right. Leaders do the right thing' (p.21). What they failed to add was how this

would be clearly recognised. Moorhead and Griffin (1992) stated that 'Management relies on formal position power, whereas leadership stems from social influence processes' (p.253). Management and leadership have been separated by others too, with Grint (1995) suggesting that leadership is 'construed as the process of constructing a vision and then cajoling one's subordinates to follow it..;' whereas management '...is much more a routine administrative affair' (p.126).

Kotter (1993) wrote that 'Management is about coping with complexity...Leadership, by contrast, is about coping with change' (p.27). He explained that part of the reason for the difference is that the business world has become more competitive and more volatile in recent years. Such volatility requires a range of approaches which clearly divide into manager roles and leader roles. He recognised that companies set out to manage complexity first by planning and budgeting - setting targets and goals for the future (typically for the next month or year) i.e. the manager role. By contrast, leading an organisation to constructive change begins by setting a direction - developing a vision of the future (often the distant future) along with strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision, and Kotter (1993) identified,

Management develops the capacity to achieve its plan by organising and staffing. The equivalent leadership activity...is aligning people. Management ensures plan accomplishment by controlling and problem solving. but for leadership, achieving a vision requires motivating and inspiring - keeping people moving in the right direction (p.28).

Louis and Miles (1990) saw modern leaders as required to be more creative adaptive leaders, whereas managers were more appropriate for bureaucratic models of leadership. They suggested that a person may choose to be either adaptive or bureaucratic and in one be seen as a leader and in the other as a manager. In order to

define the differences between management and leadership more concisely
Kotter(1990a) put them together in a table, reproduced below.

Table 1
Kotter's (1990) General Comparison of Leadership and Management

Leadership		Management
<u>Establishing Direction</u>	or	<u>Planning/Budgeting</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop future vision(often very distant) • Develop change strategies to achieve vision 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop detailed steps/ timetables for results • Allocate necessary resources
<u>Aligning people</u>	or	<u>Organising/Staffing</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communicate direction by words and deeds to those whose co-operation is needed • Influence creation of coalitions/teams that understand and accept vision and strategies 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop necessary planning, staffing, delegation structures • Provide policies/procedures for guidance and methods/systems for monitoring
<u>Motivating/Inspiring</u>	or	<u>Controlling/Problem solving</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Energise to overcome barriers(e.g. political, resource, bureaucratic) to change by satisfying need 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitor results vs plan in detail • Identify results/plan deviations and plan and organise to correct
<u>Tends to Produce</u>	or	<u>Tends to produce</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Change, often dramatic • Provides potential for very useful change(e.g. new products etc.) 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Order/predictability • Key results expected by stakeholders (e.g. in time, within budget)

From Kotter (1990a, p.199)

In research with executive focus groups in 38 countries reported by House and Aditya (1997) there was a consistent view that leadership and management were different activities. Leadership was seen as the production and explanation of a vision for the organisation with the introduction of major organisational change, providing inspiration, and dealing with 'highly stressful and troublesome aspects of the external environments of organisations' (p.444). Management was explained by being seen as

putting into place the vision and changes introduced by leaders. Not all researchers are so willing to state a difference. Nicholls (1993) thought that,

Managers who do not lead are failing to fulfil their functions as managers. When lacking its leadership dimensions, management is reduced to mere administration. Generally, organisations that are managed without leadership perform poorly - they are bureaucratic, unresponsive and inefficient (p.1).

Thus he saw leadership as an aspect of management rather than a separate role.

This view receives some support from Yukl (1989) who noted that leadership and management involve separate processes, but need not involve separate people and suggests, '...the essence of the argument seems to be that managers are oriented toward stability and leaders are oriented toward innovation; managers get people to do things more efficiently, whereas leaders get people to agree about what things should be done' (p.4). In modern organisations, management provides consistency, control, and efficiency where leadership is needed to foster purpose, passion, and imagination. 'Particularly in times of crisis or rapid change, we look to leaders, not managers, for hope, inspiration, and a pathway to somewhere more desirable' (Bolman and Deal 1994, p.77). Other researchers explain differences within leadership as well as differences between leadership and management, with for example Lohmann (1992) noting, 'Leadership has a significant impact on the success of the firm' (p.77). However, he considered that organisation level was important in the interpretation of leadership as there are differences among front-line supervisors and more senior leaders. 'Individual characteristics such as age, seniority, and level of responsibility also affected the importance of leadership' (p.77). His study showed that leaders perform two principal tasks: 'A leader gives meaning and direction to an organisation, and he obtains the commitment of the workforce to that meaning and direction. Everything else the executive does is more properly defined as management' (p.77).

Williams (1994) more straightforwardly states, 'The difference between a manager and a leader is that a manager attempts to get people to reach somebody else's goals, while a leader takes people towards his own goals' (p.5.) Bolman and Deal (1992) identified differences between management and leadership. They suggested that effective managers: emphasise reason, analysis and structure; in contrast, effective leaders emphasised symbols, culture and politics. But in their work with leaders of schools Bolman and Deal felt,

It is entirely plausible that schools have been under managed and under led...The truth is, we know very little about the mix of managerial and leadership capacities and activities that are associated with effectiveness in a variety of different contexts (p.317).

This research will concentrate on attributes of those principals who have a clear mandate to lead within colleges and will work on the assumption that leadership is distinct from management. It will also consider if there is a distinctive or preferred leadership style in further education. Such leaders will wish to be successful and the study may aid the identification of attributes appropriate for success. How that success is judged will be dependent upon the criteria used, but there are studies to help with that identification. For example Cornesky (1990) in describing successful leaders was able to suggest that 'successful leaders share four characteristic leadership strategies; attention through vision, meaning through communication, trust through positioning, and confidence through respect' (p.9). But how clearly might this be recognised by others? How might a leader be recognised and leadership be defined and would such definition guide the research? The wealth of research literature available should mean that definition would be possible particularly as there are so many definitions available - as many as there are researchers?. The survey of the

literature begins with a historical review of work that distinguishes leaders from followers. It is worth noting that in the 1992 Act 'Principals shall be responsible...for... leadership of the staff' (p.11) and thus a link with followers is stated. This link or possible link between leader and follower should become clearer as definitions are reviewed. Bolman and Heller (1995) identified: 'In English, the words *lead* and *leader* are very old, but *leadership* is surprisingly young: the first recorded use was in an early 19th. Century reference to leadership in the House of Commons' (p.336).

It has been claimed, by Sorge & Warner (1997), that 'in the United States Library of Congress in 1896 it had no books on leadership but in 1981 Bass reviewed 5000 entries on leadership' (p.340). Historically the word leadership had not been particularly necessary because the idea had not been separated from concepts of strength, direction, and domination. The image of the leader was a strong, usually male, heroic figure who knew what was needed to be done and directed others to do it '... But the past two centuries have witnessed a dramatic set of changes in institutions and societies; those changes require rethinking traditional views of leaders and leadership' (p.336). Their hypotheses about the changes are summarised in Table 2. As well as illustrating the changes in social thinking about leaders and leadership Sorge & Warner (1997) also provide another example of the way in which researchers have endeavoured to categorise leaders and leadership. There is also some anecdotal evidence to suggest that the strong male, directing others is still a part of modern FE.

Table 2 Trends in Human Institutions

Dimension of Change	Changes in systems	Changes in conceptions of leadership
Structural-technological	From local and simple to global and complex	From autocrat to analyst and social architect
Human	From focus on material needs(e.g. food and shelter) to psychic needs (e.g. lifestyle)	From good father to catalyst and servant
Political	From centralised and authoritarian to decentralised and democratic	From great warrior to negotiator and advocate
Cultural	From monocultural and univocal to multicultural and multivocal	From hero as destroyer of demons to hero as creator of possibilities

From Bolman and Heller (1995, p.337)

Between the First and Second World Wars, researchers attempted to answer the question of how leaders differed from followers. Tannenbaum et al (1961) describe how early leadership research focused solely on the leader to the exclusion of other variables and further state, 'It was assumed that leadership effectiveness could be explained by isolating psychological and physical characteristics , or traits, which were presumed to differentiate the leader from other members of his group'(p.23). Stogdill (1976) reviews an impressive range of more than three thousand such trait studies, although as Yetton (1984) observed, 'it is the number of such studies and not the consistency of their findings which is impressive' (p.12). Hollander and Offerman (1990) question trait studies, 'Among the failings of trait theory was an absence of consideration of the situation faced by the leader, including the followers to be led, and any concern with the quality of the leader's performance' (p.84). Forty years earlier Gouldner (1950) expressed a similar view that leaders do not operate in isolation and concluded: 'At this time there is no reliable evidence concerning the existence of universal leadership traits' (p.34). Sanford (1952) went further and

suggested a change of approach to include the three facets of the 'leadership phenomenon' which he thought were:

1. The leader and his psychological attributes
2. the follower with his problems, attitudes and needs, and
3. the group situation in which followers and leaders relate with one another (p60).

He was thoughtful enough to add that 'To concentrate on any one of these facets of the problem represents over simplification of an intricate phenomenon' (p.60).

Bass (1990) made an effort to summarise the research on leadership traits:

When considering the traits of leadership the factors associated with leadership from the research could probably all be classified under the following headings: 1. Capacity (intelligence, alertness, verbal facility, originality and judgement); 2. Achievement (scholarship, knowledge and athletic accomplishment); 3. Responsibility (dependability, initiative, persistence, aggressiveness, self-confidence and the desire to excel); 4. Participation (activity, sociability, co-operation, adaptability and humour); 5. Status (socio-economic position and popularity); 6. Situation (mental level, status, skills, needs and interests of followers, objectives to be achieved and so on) (p.76).

This summary illustrates the wide-ranging nature of the studies at this time, i.e. during the 1950s some of which were one-off and have not been replicated. Mann (1959) also reviewed and researched leadership in small-group studies and like Stogdill (1948) found some traits, such as intelligence, correlated with leadership perceptions, although the strength of this relationship varied quite a bit from one study to another. Some, such as Bennis (1976), Gibb (1954) and Howell (1976) were more sceptical and suggested that there was no single trait that would be of benefit in predicting leadership potential. Lewin and Lippitt (1938) noted that 'only 5% of the traits listed in over a hundred studies appeared in four or more studies' (p.556). Lord and Maher (1993) suggested that the variability in results was discouraging for leadership researchers, 'who soon turned to contingency theories of leadership' (p.30). However,

such change in approach was seen in a more systematic way by Hersey and Stinson (1981) who summarise these studies as being in 'three distinct periods or phases: the trait phase, the behavioural phase, and the situational phase' (p.4). The trait phase examined the characteristics that might identify those which allow leaders to be successful in all situations. Morphet, Johns and Reller (1982) point out that, 'Although the traits approach has not provided a comprehensive description of leadership, it has opened the way for further research that gives promise of great significance' (p.101). Almost an abrupt about turn from the previous research studies but did not find favour with other researchers until the 1990s.

The research focus shifted from traits to behavioural differences and the human relations school of management emerged in which leaders were studied either by observing their behaviour in laboratory settings or 'by asking individuals in field settings to describe the behaviour of individuals in positions of authority, and relating these descriptions to various criteria of leader effectiveness' (House & Aditya, 1997, p.420). Two major research themes in the behavioural literature field were those developed at Ohio State University (Stogdill and Coons, 1957) and the other at Michigan University (Katz & Kahn, 1953; Likert, 1961; Mann, 1965) in the USA. The Ohio Group began by attempting to identify the major dimensions of leader behaviour and, in the beginning, concentrated on leadership in military organisations. The Michigan team classified managers as effective or ineffective and then attempted to isolate leader behaviour which differentiated between them. Others, like Wofford (1970) used these behavioural studies in areas other than the military. He surveyed 136 managers from 85 companies and described what he called the five independent dimensions of leadership behaviour as seen in Table 3:

The five dimensions appear to move from the leader as a 'strong man' to the leader as 'facilitator' but not in what appears to be a rational way, but simply as a collection of common approaches. The findings of these 'behavioural' studies were summarised by Yetton (1984) who also claimed,. 'the human relations school of management was finally buried by the management community with Richard Nixon and the Vietnam War' (p. 80).

Table 3 The Link Between a Leader's Objective and Consequent Behaviour.

Leader's objective	Leader's behaviour
1. Group success	Leader attempts to dominate the work by careful planning and organising of work activity; authority often delegated to lower levels
2. Personal enhancement	Leader attempts to dominate his subordinates, thus emphasising his own power and authority. Forces subordinates to be compliant, and closely controls their work. decision-making is restricted to upper levels.
3. Personal interaction	Realising that leadership cannot occur without communication, the leader interacts with his subordinates, and tries to influence them via friendly, informal contact. The leader as communicator and socialiser.
4. Dynamic achievement	The leader attempts to be forceful and active, to be where the action is, to get things done. Consciously tries to achieve.
5. Security and maintenance	The leader tries to make his team feel happy and secure so that they can concentrate on getting on with the job. Doesn't worry about work or the consequences of error; avoids putting pressure on people.

From Wofford (1970) summarised by Maude (1978), (p.5-6).

The models of leadership studies that followed were significantly more complex than the earlier ones. Bolman and Heller (1995) would argue that such research on leadership in education was not linked closely enough to the reality in the schools or colleges and that a 'significant gap between research and practice continues to haunt the field' (p.317). This situational phase examines the interrelationships among leader

and subordinate behaviours or characteristics and the situation(s) in which they find themselves. These were the contingency models of which the following are the best known according to Yetton (1984); Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership (Fiedler, 1967); Path-Goal Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (House, 1971; House and Mitchell, 1974), Vroom & Yetton's (1973) Decision Process Theory; Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) Life Cycle Theory; and Graen's (1987) Vertical Dyadic Linkage Model. Wright (1996) researched a number of other behavioural approaches to leadership studies without providing long lasting theories but did offer a wide variety of different factors which need to be taken into account when attempting to explain leadership success and effectiveness.

Fiedler's (1967) theory is the earliest and the most extensively researched and was the first sustained attempt to develop a contingent model of leadership. The model had three situational factors: leader member relations i.e. how well a leader is known by the group; task structure i.e. the amount and complexity of the structure required or observed in a task; and leader position power i.e. the amount of power a leader has simply from his position in the organisation. These it is suggested determine the favourability of the situation for managers. The model specifies that relationship-motivated leaders will be more effective than task-motivated leaders in situations which are moderately favourable for leader exertion of influence, but that the opposite will hold true in both more favourable and less favourable situations. Thus the theory states, in summary by Fiedler, Chemers and Bors (1981) that the performance of either a group or an organisation depends on (or is contingent upon) the degree to which the leader's personality matches the requirements of the leadership situation. Since the publication of the Contingency Model, Fiedler and Maher (1976) suggest

'leadership theory has increasingly turned to formulations which consider not only the leader's personality or behaviour, but also critical situational factors' (p.127) (In Grint, 1997). Path-Goal makes the influence of leader behaviour, initiating structure and consideration, dependent on the degree of structure present in the situation (House and Mitchell, 1974) and is considered to be a behaviour-contingency model.

The Path-Goal theory of Leadership asserts that: (a) the leader's behaviour will exert a beneficial influence on subordinates' motivation to perform, job satisfaction and acceptance of the leader to the extent that it smoothes the path to the achievement of their goals; and (b) the leadership behaviours which perform this function will vary depending on the characteristics of the subordinates and their working environment (Wright, 1996, p.61).

Both this and Fiedler's theory average across leader behaviours in a particular role. House, Filley and Kerr (1976) reviewed the evidence put forward by Graen and determined that the theory was not practicable to be used as a prescriptive theory. Both Vroom and Yetton and Graen disaggregate manager behaviour. Vroom and Yetton (1973) show that variation in style for an individual manager is greater than the difference between managers. They identify seven situational dimensions which both should and do influence the level of subordinate participation in decision-making. The Vroom-Yetton (1973) model is essentially a diagnostic one and assumes that managers can vary their style from situation to situation. They identify five different leadership styles which span a continuum from autocratic to participative. Graen differentiates between subordinates instead of problems (Danserau, Graen and Haga, 1975). They identify that managers act differently towards different subordinates. Members of the IN-group are consulted like colleagues, whereas members of the OUT-group are treated as hired workers and told what to do.

A situational model that has been used because of its simplicity is Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) Situational Leadership Theory in which it is implicit that leaders should not only adopt a leadership style which is appropriate to their followers' level of maturity (with maturity here defined as the ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behaviour), but should also help followers to grow in maturity as far as they are willing and able to go. Conversely, if a follower's performance begins to slip and ability or motivation decreases, the leader should reassess the follower's level of maturity and provide appropriate support and direction. Huczynski and Buchanan (1991) described situational leadership as 'an approach to determining the most effective style of influencing which takes into account the amounts of direction and support the leader gives, and the readiness of followers to perform a particular task' (p.506). Hersey and Blanchard (1982) use situation in their definition of leadership '...the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation' (p.83). Jones and Oswick (1992) use the Situational Leadership model approach in their work on leadership in the classroom where they consider educational goals in the classroom setting. They also affirm that 'Effective leaders appear to be those who can adapt their behaviour to meet the needs of the situation' (p.51). One of the difficulties of such theories based on the contingent approach was the lack of their being able to predict the 'correct' behaviour in a particular situation i.e. they had situations in organisations and groups and recognised leaders with known behavioural characteristics but were unable to forecast how the leader would respond. They would, however, be able to determine the appropriateness or otherwise after the event. Yukl (1989) declares, 'With few exceptions, it is still not possible to make confident

predictions about the optimal behaviour pattern for a leader in a given situation' (p.263).

Another development linked to the situational approach of the contingency model is that of the 'transactional model' of leadership that, 'developed initially out of a social exchange perspective, emphasising the implicit social exchange or transaction that exists between leader and followers as a feature of effectiveness'(Hollander and Offerman 1990, p.86). The Path-Goal theory and the theories of Graen were also known as the theories of transactional leadership (House, Woycke and Fodor, 1988). Such theories were founded on the idea that leader/follower relationships are based on a series of exchanges or implicit bargains between leaders and followers.

The general notion that runs through this class of theories is that when the job and the environment of the followers fail to provide the necessary motivation, direction, and satisfaction, the leader, through his or her behaviour, will be effective by compensating for the deficiencies (p.99).

Burns and Bass (1985) introduced a broader paradigm of leadership that transcends but implicitly incorporates trait and behavioural style considerations in describing alternative methods of leadership. According to them the leadership process may be viewed as either transactional or transformational. An extension of the transactional model which might be looked at as one in which a leaders influence is so powerful that followers respond very readily - termed 'transformational leadership'. Burns (1978) saw the transformational leader as one who changes the outlook and behaviour of followers.

Transformational leaders rely on stimulating their followers by articulating and focusing a vision and mission; creating and maintaining a positive image in the minds of followers, peers, and superiors; exhibiting a high degree of confidence in themselves and their beliefs; setting challenging goals for followers; providing a

personal example for followers to emulate; showing confidence in and respect for followers; behaving in a manner that reinforces the vision and mission of the leaders; and possessing a high degree of linguistic ability and non-verbal expressiveness (House, Woycke and Fodor 1988, p.100-101).

Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) consider transformational and transactional leaders 'quantitatively different kinds of individuals who construct reality in markedly different ways, thereby viewing themselves and the people they lead in contrasting ways' (p.649). Although individuals may display both kinds of leadership, they are disposed with varying intensities toward one form of leadership. VanEron and Burke (1994) have found:

Transactional leadership behaviour is most likely to be congruent with a stable environment and mechanistic structure where issues of control and power are more salient. Transformational leadership is more likely to be effective in a turbulent environment with an organismic structure where issues of power may be less salient (p.151).

The modern FE college is not an environment that would be called organismic as it traditionally has a hierarchical, rigid structure and some of the 'turbulence' has been caused by the changes from such a structure (See Pitcher, 1993 quoted earlier)

Transformational leadership behaviour is proposed by Lundberg (1986) to influence fundamental cultural changes related to the norms and values of the organisation. Transactional leadership practices, however, work to maintain the existing order in a system and support the current culture (Burns, 1978; Schein, 1992). In reviewing these two leadership types VanEron and Burke (1994) concluded that there were two integrated aspects of leadership: '(a) the belief system, or disposition of leaders, and (b) the leadership process, or practices and behaviours of leaders' (p. 153). According to Deutsch (1982), a disposition is a 'more or less consistent complex of cognitive, motivational and moral orientations to a given situation that serve to guide one's

behaviour and responses in that situation' (p.15). And Burke and Litwin (1989) suggest practices are 'what managers do in the normal course of events to use the human and material resources at their disposal to carry out the organisation's strategy' (p.282). These aspects of leadership would determine if a leader was transformational or transactional, although Van Eron and Burke (1994) emphasise the transformational style in their description: 'A person who has the proclivity to be a transformational leader is expected to exhibit more of the behaviours of a transformational leader, such as taking risks, providing, demonstrating, and capturing commitment for vision' (p.153).

In an interview study of transformational leaders, Lehr (1987) found 'that what was important and common to all leaders studied was an underlying belief system which guided and directed their actions' (p42). Seath (1994) also saw a great distinction between transformational and transactional leaders and whilst he considered a transformational leader as vital for a company striving to become a total quality management organisation he suggested that transactional leadership should be called management and not leadership as it represents a 'concern for tasks and getting things done, but ignores the need for vision, values and a balance view of short and long-term aims' (p.63). It would appear that transactional leaders do not recognise the true potential of their followers but limit them to the solution-routes that they as leaders have set, whereas the transformational leader motivates followers to perform beyond their expectations by defining goals clearly but not the routes for achieving them. Two of the most determined researchers of the transformational style of leadership are Tichy and Devanna(1990) who continually praise and advocate this approach and argue forcefully that,

Self-renewal is the hallmark of the transformational leader. Sensing the right time to reinvest, initiating the creative-destructive forces necessary to transform an organisation is an ability that few leaders and few organisations nurture (p.263).

McLean and Weitzel (1991) considered that most acts of leadership were either transactional or transformational. They also provide a useful summary of the characteristics of these two broad categories of leaders based on an article by B.M.Bass (1990, p.55) :

Table 4: Summary of Transactional and Transformational Leadership.

Transactional Leader	
Contingent reward:	Contracts exchange of rewards for effort...recognises accomplishment
Management by exception (active):	Watches and searches for deviations from rules and standards...takes corrective action.
Management by exception (passive):	Intervenes only if standards are not met.
Laissez-faire:	Abdicates responsibility...avoids making decisions.
Transformational Leader	
Charisma:	Provides vision and sense of mission...instils pride...gains respect and trust.
Inspiration:	Communicates high expectations...uses symbols to focus efforts...expresses important purposes in simple ways.
Stimulation:	Promotes intelligence...rationality...and careful problem solving.
Individualism:	Gives personal attention...treats each follower separately coaches...advises.

They further quote Bass (1990) 'Transformational leadership is closer to the prototype of leadership that people have in mind when they describe their ideal leader...a role model with which subordinates want to identify' (p.55). In support of Bass, Keely (1995) summarised the views of those who propounded transformational leadership and felt that without such leadership

organisations are just marketplaces for self-serving transactions, subject to drift and disintegration. With no leaders to transform them, corporations become disabled by bureaucracy and mediocrity, since positions of authority fall to transactional managers who simply muddle through...(p.71).

The supporters of transformational leadership feel strongly it is the appropriate approach.

Other researchers in the late 70s and early 80s (Katz and Kahn, 1978, Conger and Kanungo, 1988, Burns, 1978) returned and used as reference the work of Max Weber whose work was translated in 1947 and reported in Conger and Kanungo (1988) He introduced what he called 'Charismatic Authority' which he postulated derived its legitimacy not from rules, positions or traditions but rather from a faith in the leader's exemplary character. It is suggested by Groom (1996) that 'The best starting point for understanding recent developments in leadership is the Weberian legacy' (p.14). He further points out that,

The two most important contemporary leadership trends - transformational leadership (and a series of associated types) and managerial leadership[his terminology for transactional leadership] - build on or extend Weber's pioneering work on charisma and bureaucracy respectively (p.14).

Avolio and Bass (1985) agreed that the most significant component of transformational leadership is charisma. They did, however, argue that 'The purely charismatic may want followers to adopt the charismatic's world view and go no further; the transformational leader will attempt to instil in followers the ability to question not only established views but eventually those established by the leader' (p.14).

Table 5: Distinguishing Attributes of Charismatic and Non-Charismatic Leaders

Components	Non-Charismatic Leaders	Charismatic Leaders
Relation to status quo	Essentially agrees with the status quo and strives to maintain it	Essentially opposed to status quo and strives to change it
Future goals	Goals not too discrepant from the status quo	Idealised vision that is highly discrepant from the status quo
Likeableness	Shared perspective makes him or her likeable	Shared perspective and idealised vision make him or her likeable and an honourable hero worthy of identification and imitation
Trustworthiness	Disinterested advocacy in persuasion attempts	Passionate advocacy by incurring great personal risk and cost
Expertise	Expert in using available means to achieve goals within the framework of the existing order	Expert in using unconventional means to transcend the existing order
Behaviour	Conventional, conforming to existing norms	Unconventional or counter-normative
Environmental sensitivity	Low need for environmental sensitivity to maintain the status quo	High need for environmental sensitivity for changing the status quo
Articulation	Weak articulation of goals and motivation to lead	Strong and/or inspirational articulation of future vision and motivation to lead
Power base	Position power and personal power (based on reward and/or expert power; and liking for a friend who is a similar other)	Personal power (based on expert power; respect and admiration for a unique hero)
Leader-Follower relationship	Egalitarian, consensus seeking, or directive; nudges or orders people to share his or her views	Elitist, entrepreneurial, and exemplary; transforms people to share the radical changes advocated

Table is taken from House et al (1988, p109).

House et al (1988) use charismatic and transformational leadership synonymously and provide a list of attributes for charismatic and non charismatic leaders. (See Table 5)

Certain features of the components listed in Table 5 are critical for the perception of charisma in a leader. It is quite probable that effective and non-charismatic leaders will sometimes exhibit one or more of the behavioural components that have been identified. However, according to House et al (1988) the likelihood of a follower attributing charisma to a leader will depend on:

major features of these [behavioural] components manifested in a leader's behaviour, the level of intensity of each component as expressed in a leader's behaviour, and the level of saliency or importance of individual components as determined by the existing situation or organisational context (p.108).

Some researchers, e.g. Grint (1995) have a problem with the charisma characteristic as it would at times appear to be there and at other times not, even in the same leaders. This also encourages the thought that follower perception is vital in leadership and as shown here particularly in recognising charisma. (This topic of follower perception will be returned to in the next chapter.) The meaning of transformational leadership which includes charisma within its definition has evolved over more than a decade and the factors that are used in its definition are usually that of the subordinate's reaction to the superior leader and vice-versa from the work of Burns (1978), Bass (1985). Avolio and Bass (1988) give what they call the four I's of transformational leadership: inspirational leadership (the heightening of subordinate motivation through charisma); individualised consideration (treatment of subordinates according to their personal needs); intellectual stimulation (influence on subordinates' thinking and imagination) and idealised influence (subordinates' identification with and emulation of the leader's vision). Sashkin (1988) takes not only the four I's but adds on the organisational context (with some thought he could have added an Institutional context!) and he called it Visionary leadership. Sashkin and Rosenbach (1993) note that this Visionary Leadership Theory proposed by Sashkin considers the behaviour

and personal characteristics of leaders and also the organisational context (which he calls “culture building”) in which they find themselves. They propose that transformational leaders change organisations and also transform followers. The followers are transformed because they accept and internalise the key values and beliefs that the leader has identified as the basis of the organisation’s culture. Work in Britain has suggested that these newer approaches to leadership have become increasingly complex and ‘divorced from common-sense views of leadership’ (p.16) according to Sale (1997) and that we should study ‘Attribution Theory’ which suggests that leadership is what people characterise effective leaders as having and that leadership occurs when followers perceive it has occurred.

Educational leadership: a general perspective

In this literature survey I have found little that identifies and defines leadership in further education but at this point the work on the topic in schools and community colleges particularly in the USA will be considered in more detail. This will mean that some of the terms used may be confusing, for example the term 'principal', may mean the head of a primary or secondary school as well as of a college and 'an administrator' will be the headteacher or a senior manager in a school or college or a senior manager in an education district in the USA (rather like a senior education officer in a local authority in Britain) ; each will be referred to in their roles as leaders in their institutions or of a group of institutions and may all be termed 'top managers'.

Much of the study of leadership in schools and colleges has been associated with change to bring about effectiveness. As change is perpetual in education it is not surprising that researchers have considered transformational leadership as an appropriate style for schools and colleges. Some researchers suggest it is the only style that will bring significant change, and the only style that is supported by empirical research (Fisher, 1994). The contrast between the transformational and transactional leader by Sergiovanni and Carver (1980) would appear to confirm the importance of the transformational leader: i.e. an educational organisation based on transactional leadership will have the attainment of knowledge as its goal; the transformational organisation will focus on students. Silins (1994) in his work in schools also considers the differences in worth to an organisation of the two forms of leadership and describes transformational leadership as a style that provides a creative, innovative and collaborative spirit of working together to bring about successful

change and an improved organisation bond. In contrast, transactional leadership does not bind leaders and followers in any enduring way and promotes a routineised, non-creative but stable environment. Bass (1990) decries the work on transactional leadership in stating, 'most experimental research, unfortunately, has focused on transactional leadership, whereas the real movers and shakers of the world are transformational' (p.23). The transformational leader is given credit by Howell and Avolio (1993) for a wide range of skills and an ability to influence, nay inspire followers. They further comment upon the work of Koh (1990) in which it is identified that in schools transformational leadership of principals indirectly affected student performance through its impact on variables like teacher commitment. Sergiovanni (1990) considers that transformational leadership is appropriate in schools when change is required, as such leadership ensures that 'leaders and followers are united in pursuit of higher level goals common to both...Both want to shape the school in a new direction' (p.24). Many other researchers agree with Sergiovanni and identify transformational leadership as the kind of educational leadership necessary to take schools into the 21st Century. (Fullan, 1991, Leithwood, 1992; Schlechty, 1990). Caldwell and Spinks (1988) in their work on what they termed the self-managing school, i.e. one in which leadership was shared by all staff in the school, considered:

...leadership, must be more transformational than transactional, with the former implying a capacity to encourage others in a commitment to change, while the latter is more concerned with maintaining the status quo by exchanging an assurance of a secure place of work for a commitment to get the job done (p.19).

In work in schools, particularly in the United States it is clear from the research of the last 20 years that leadership is the key to effective school reform (Silins, 1992; Leithwood, 1992; Wissler, 1988; Parker, 1993). They argued that the school

principal's leadership is the most important factor in determining a school's climate and the students' success. Sylvia and Hutchison (1985) quoted in Bass (1990) concluded that the motivation of 167 Oklahoma teachers depended considerably on the perceptions of the quality of their relationships with their superiors. Other researchers in the 1970s identified and confirmed the important role principals play in school-improvement efforts (Berman and McLaughlin, 1978; Fullan, 1982). Similarly, research on school effectiveness concluded that strong administrative leadership was among those factors within the school that make a difference in student learning (Brookover and Lezotte, 1977; Edmonds, 1979) Hallinger and Heck (1996) point out that 'educational policy makers have been similarly inclined to believe that principal leadership is critical to the achievement of students' (p.6).

In England, some leaders have recognised the responsibility and influence of their role, Limb (1994), the principal of a large college of FE whose leadership approach is founded on a commitment to individual learning, identifies for herself the dilemma of a transformational style that must be in place to bring about the changes she envisages,

A principal must be committed to a learning approach to all his or her management functions...openness and vulnerability are not traditionally associated with leaders, and may be misinterpreted as weakness. Such an approach requires a reconstruction of the leadership role away from the dominance of omnipotence and strength into a focus on growth and transformation (p.228).

Marsh (1992) in his conclusion to a study of leadership in further education in England proposed education leadership is essentially a social process empowering others beyond competence to excellence. This would fit the transformational model.

Gregory (1996) confirmed Marsh's view by providing a description of a style that too appears to offer a model that could be considered as transformational:

The success or otherwise in meeting the objectives of educational policy makers will depend on factors over which they have little direct control. These all involve the capacity in the further education system, and within each college, to develop people's capabilities, gain their commitment, secure their motivation, beliefs and insights. The ability to secure a collective human effort to sustained educational improvement and to develop a commitment to shared vision, is a critical issue. It is heavily dependent on the nature and quality of leadership...(p.47).

Manasse (1984) reported that in effective school systems, principals built and shaped their vision while simultaneously involving the staff and students in the development and implementation of that vision and the expectations to support it. Morphet, Johns and Reller (1982) argued further that by increasing followers' involvement and responsibility in the administration of the school, the principal can adopt a more positive, proactive change-agent role. Less effective principals react to the demands and constraints in their school systems but do not create them. However, in the following comments from two principals who epitomise the very traditional side of further education they illustrate that there is still some learning to go before they too are excited by the prospect of leadership. Ainley and Bailey (1997) in a study of two principals in FE colleges reported, 'Both principals were clear that, while further education had initially been given a more prominent role in the education system, the means adopted - independent status and per capita funding - was likely to lead some colleges to fail'(p.35). They drew the conclusion that, 'The particular style of leadership the principal chooses to adopt in response to the specific circumstances in which they find themselves derives from their personality and values' (p.36).

Roberts (1994) wrote of the post-incorporate world of a principal in stating 'the days of the entrepreneurial, autocratic principal, single-handedly directing a complex institution with adequate lines of communication and management structure, have long since disappeared and neither will, nor should, re-emerge' (p.12). With the comments by Ainley and Bailey this may not be so certain! Whilst not assigning a particular named style to leaders other researchers have observed the environment of leadership and the results of leadership. Harling (1984) could have been writing about post-16 education in the 90s,

...in general leaders in the educational system are finding that their bases of authority are changing. The popular view of the leader as one who possesses legal rights, with powers by virtue of his position to impose sanctions and rewards is being upstaged by his need to display superior competence and possess those leadership qualities as an individual which encourage his views to be adopted (p.12)

Still other researchers endeavour to show the organisational trend of the 90s towards a more participative and 'flat' structure is or should be occurring in educational institutions. Silins (1994):

Principals do not have a monopoly on leadership but they do have a position of privilege in terms of status, power and mechanisms readily available to them that facilitate the operationalisation of leadership into process strategies which can lead to school improvement. A principal can demonstrate leadership by sharing leadership with others in the school (p.273).

This 'new' style of democratic leadership in organisations recognises what must be the most vital aspect of leadership i.e. followership. There can be no leaders without followers. One of the simplest definitions of leadership as well as perhaps being the most profound is that of Lord and Maher (1993) 'Leadership is the process of being perceived by others as a leader' (p.11). This also has the benefit of being very useable and applicable. Hollander (1993) suggested that, 'Leadership is not something a leader

possesses so much as a process involving followership' (p.29). By their role in legitimising leadership, followers affect the strength of a leader's influence, the style of a leader's behaviour, and the performance of the group, displaying the processes of perception, attribution, and judgement. As Stewert (1982) has noted, leadership operates within the constraints and opportunities presented by followers. The constraints include the expectation and perception of followers which can influence leaders according to Lord and Maher (1990). Hollander (1993) too puts forward the view that,

Effective leadership is much more likely to be achieved by a process in which there is reciprocity and the potential for two-way influence and power-sharing, rather than a sole reliance on power over others (.p31).

He further states,

Whatever power is imputed to an organisational role, actualising it depends on its perception by followers. Power becomes real when others perceive it as so, and respond accordingly (p.42).

The focus on power is one that many researchers use in their work on leadership. Power may be considered to be the most important function of an effective leader but researchers continue to debate not only effectiveness but also those factors that are considered to be most vital for leadership. The use of power may be termed influence and leads to the suggestion that most definitions assume, 'leadership involves a process by which one individual exerts influence over other people to structure the activities and relationships...in an organisation.' (Khaleelee and Woolf, 1996, p.5) As has been seen above, some researchers define leaders by what they do and the influence they have or should have in using their power. With power usually comes the idea of control and many authors and researchers write about the 'lack of control' caused by change in the education system this may be an illustration of the discomfort

of 'traditional' leaders to change. Others have provided a multitude of models of approach, styles, characteristics, vital ingredients of leadership. In an effort to make this information more manageable, Yukl (1989) brought together the work of what he considered to be the seminal researchers on leadership and endeavoured to organise what he saw as the major taxonomies of the leadership literature and research. His summary of these taxonomies may be found in Table 6.

Such a taxonomy allows a comparison to be made and also once again illustrates an almost ad hoc development of leadership studies but with Yukl's own work drawing together, in a very comprehensive way, much of the work that has gone before, as did Stodgill (1948) in his work on leadership traits.

Table 6: The Approximate Correspondence Among Major Taxonomies of Leadership
Adapted from Yukl (1989) p. 95

Yukl (1989)	Mintzberg (1973)	Morse and Wagner (1978)	Stogdill (1963)	Bowers and Seashore (1966)	House and Mitchell (1974)	Luthans and Lockwood (1984)	Page (1985)	
Supporting	Leader role		Consideration	Leader support	Supportive leadership	Motivating and reinforcing	Supervising	
Consulting					Participative leadership			
Delegating			Tolerance of freedom					
Recognising								
Rewarding								
Motivating		Motivating and conflict handling	Production emphasis	Goal emphasis	Achievem ent-oriented leadership			
Managing conflict and team building			Integration	Interact ion facilitat ion		Managing conflict		
Developing		Providing develop- ment		Work facilitat ion		Training and development		
Clarifying			Initiating structure		Directive Leadership			
Planning and organising	Resource allocator; entre- preneur	Organising and coordin- ating				Planning and coordinating	Planning and organising; strategic planning	
Problem solving	Disturb- ance handler	Strategic problem solving	Role assumption; demand reconciliation			Problem solving and deciding	Decision making	
Informing	Dissemin- ator	Informati on handling				Exchange information	Consulting	
Monitoring	Monitor					Representing, influencing superiors	Monitoring /controlling	Monitoring indicators, controlling
Representing	Spokesman negotiator; figurehead					Interacting with outsiders; socialising and politicking	Representing	
Networking and interfacing	Liaison	Managing environ- ment and resources					Coordinating	

Leadership in further education

Which of these taxonomies might have guided the Government when it considered the role of the principal in a further education college? Such a summary of taxonomies emphasises the amount of information resource available to potential leaders. In the previous section there was a brief review of the history and development of leader and leadership studies that are meant to provide summaries of the most important and informative developments. But as will be shown, it is a mere 'drop in the ocean' of the research information available.

There is considerable debate on the research of leadership as distinct from leaders and an enormous wealth of discussion to draw on. Bass (1990) in an update of Stogdill's 'Handbook of Leadership' had 1100 pages summarising the research on leadership and leaders for the past 60 years. There is so much information that the researcher may take the advice of Hughes (1991) who himself obtained comfort from Immegart (1988) who confessed he found it necessary to confine himself largely to a review of the reviews as leadership studies was a 'thriving industry'. Researchers have noted the amount of information available to help identify and define leadership. Yukl (1989) estimated that there had been more than 10000 studies of leadership. Other researchers have been a little less circumspect as for example Bain (1996) who states that 'leadership is notoriously difficult to define' (p.26) but then adds ten characteristics that are found in successful business leaders that he had synthesised from research and literature. Hanson (1985) reported that:

an examination of the mountain of literature on leadership has led numerous reviewers to suggest that there is less there than meets the eye. The concept is a many faceted one, surrounded by a mass of myth, conventional wisdom, idealism and illusion (p.178).

The pattern of leadership research, according to Calder (1977), has been one of 'discarding, extending, and introducing ideas as the limitations of existing ideas are realised. A progression of different orientations has guided modern psychological studies of leadership' (p.179). Some researchers are even more critical of the study of leadership and Melcher (1976) strongly states 'The study of leadership, while occupying the attention of many specialists, has resulted in little accumulated knowledge of a theoretical or practical nature' (p.94). Yukl (1989) joins in the despair by exclaiming that 'most theories are beset with conceptual weaknesses and lack strong empirical support' (p.252). More recently this has been supported by Chase (1994) 'Leadership is seen as a key organisation success criterion, yet we do not know much more about the nature of leadership today than earlier generations' (p.1). Critics have repeatedly suggested that research on school leadership has contributed little to research or practice. Bridges (1982) wrote:

There is no compelling evidence to suggest that a major theoretical issue or practical problem relating to school administrators has been resolved by those labouring in the intellectual vineyards since 1967 (p.12).

Immegart (1988) offered a similarly glum assessment of the research on educational leadership:

Of over 1000 manuscripts submitted [to 'Educational Administration Quarterly' during the 6 years that Immegart was editor], only a small percentage were empirical efforts directed towards leadership and leader behaviour. Such efforts were typically of poor quality and were repetitive, not ground-breaking in nature (p.267).

The emphasis on the number of research reports is also used by Grint (1995) who, in a survey of leadership research, identified 'Between January 1990 and January 1994, 5,341 articles were published on leadership just within those journals covered by the BPI/INFORM international database' (p.124). This database is made up of around 800 English management journals, and thus 5 articles on leadership are published, just in journals, every working day! What also has to be considered is that almost all of the prevailing theories of leadership and about 98% of the empirical evidence are rather distinctly American in character. House and Aditya (1997) further state that these studies are:

...individualistic rather than collectivistic, stressing follower responsibilities rather than rights, assuming hedonism rather than commitment to duty or altruistic motivation, assuming centrality of work and democratic value orientation, and emphasising assumptions of rationality rather than asceticism, religion, or superstition (p409).

Chase (1994) offers a way forward, 'It is vital that we move beyond the dictionary definitions of leadership and focus on the attributes which will characterise those capable of leading organisations into the 21st century' (p.1). In spite of this or perhaps as a result of this research to date, this study will endeavour to add to the debate by providing an insight into leadership in further education at a time when the recognition for its need appears to be here and, as Chase suggests, it will concentrate on the attributes of leaders.

The role and function of the leader and leadership in further education, now it has been recognised as being of importance within the 1992 Act, should be more able to draw upon a wealth of research from non-further education environments. In an Act that was expected to have far reaching effects according to the FEFC (1992)

The creation... of the new further education sector is the latest policy initiative, aimed at promoting even greater responsiveness on the part

of providers to the needs of learners...the Secretary of State has placed a special new emphasis on further education with a commitment to a 25% increase in student numbers over the next three years (p.1).

Others agreed with this view and the consequences of the Act. Macfarlane (1993) thought that the changes envisioned for 16-19 provision in the FE and HE Act 1992 would be particularly significant and far-reaching. He also added greater emphasis by suggesting that the 16-19 sector of education is a system in transition. As such it is full of tensions between new ideas and conventional wisdom, between those seeking reform and those committed to the established order. These effects were not only on those taking part in further education but those local, regional and national communities for whom they are educating and training. The Act was to bring about change.

The nature of that change was to unfold over the next three years, i.e. the new funding and planning period demanded by the FEFC, and if the new sector was to build upon the experience of other industries or public bodies it should recognise that the major responsibility of a leader is to affect and manage change. Romanelli and Tushman (1988) noted that,

Where environments are changing and/or performance outcomes are low or declining, leadership's primary task is to intervene on ongoing patterns of commitment and exchange to redirect the character of an organisation's relationship with its environment (p.130).

What changes need to take place and what changes are already taking place? In 1992 prior to the incorporation of colleges the FEU (1992) carried out a study involving 22 colleges developing a corporate approach to curriculum and strategic planning and amongst its conclusions was

At a time of change, a strong corporate culture exhibited through strong and clear-sighted leadership may be essential. The experience gleaned from the project indicates that the strong leader is likely to have a clear vision and be a strategic thinker, ready to listen to and involve others, and to take decisive action reflecting that vision (p.7).

So there were no doubt as to what was required but, did other research support this?

In writing of the changes in the late 80s and early 90s Bennett et al (1992) were convinced that:

college managements throughout the world have had to cope with a set of responsibilities and expectations which have been changing with increasing speed...Many of the changes are radical and their consequences unclear. Consequently, uncertainty is almost all that management can be certain of (p.1).

Thomson (1992) also considered that 'the most fundamental role of the public services manager is managing change.' (p.46) Such uncertainty in any change has to be anticipated by other researchers and in their work on leadership in schools Bolman and Deal (1993) consider it essential that leaders in schools recognise not only the context in which they are leading is changing but also that the nature of leadership too is changing. This is recognised as being a move away from the autocratic to the democratic style of leadership and that it is vital in their institutions if they are to be effective. He too quotes Machiavelli 'Leadership, especially at the highest levels is becoming more and more concerned with change' (p.47). Sheene (1983) as a principal in the 80s commented that for reality you should read change and more change if you have leadership responsibilities. He also quotes from Neusbitt, J and Aburdene P. in The Journal of General Management - 'In the decade of the 1990s we are moving from management control to leadership of accelerated change.' Leadership styles have to be different in dynamic changing environments, suggested Maude (1978), as such an environment gives more and more problems than a

monolithic, over-structured leadership cannot cope with. 'In these conditions a new type of leader is needed - one who can stimulate subordinates and colleagues to work in teams and who can integrate the work of numerous specialists' (p.29).

One of the qualities of a leader at a time of uncertainty or change is the anticipation of that change and then using that foresight to create a vision for the future or perhaps recognising that a vision is being created by the government via legislation. Robbins and Duncan (1988) identified 'The vision of the CEO is a critical tool by which change is initiated and sustained' (p.205). Burns (1978) argued that leadership was about change, or transformation, and proposed that leaders should identify what was required of an organisation to manage that change,

The essence of leadership... is the recognition of real need, the uncovering and exploiting of contradictions among values, the reorganisation of institutions where necessary, and the governance of change (p.43-44).

Change has been familiar territory for further education for example, Twyman (1985) wrote of FE since the last war as being, 'characterised by a high degree of turbulence, complexity and change' (p.325). It is the leadership of this change that is new for the new Chief executives of FE Corporations, as until 1992 it was the responsibility of the LEA. It is worthwhile, therefore to reflect on the work of Beckhard and Harris (1987), who recognised that the world in which organisations exist is continuously in change. They therefore focus on what a CEO must do in an organisation to endeavour to enable it to prosper in this environment. They consider the core dilemma facing leaders is to have to maintain stability, or the perception of stability, in their organisations and, at the same time, provide creative adaptation to outside forces; stimulate innovation; and change assumptions, technology, working methods, roles

and relationships, and the culture of the organisation itself. They put forward the following model for ensuring that the issues are dealt with successfully by an effective leader: a vision of what the institution should look like, and direction toward that vision; a clear sense of the organisation's identity(reason for being); a clear sense of the organisation's interdependency with its outside environment. The organisational system consists of both the formal organisation and those parts of the environment that constantly affect it, such as competitors or technology; clear and reachable scenarios(not objectives, but descriptions of end states that also define what the organisation should look like at an intermediate point). Scenarios should be clear enough to provide the basis for developing strategic plans, including contingency choices; flexible enough organisational structures to manage optimally the types of work required, production, innovation, business strategies, market intelligence, information management, and creative financial planning; effective use of advanced technology; reward systems that equally reflect organisation priorities, values, and norms and individual needs for dignity and growth.

Some of these statements are perhaps not in a further education context and therefore may be considered too distant from current or proposed practice. What was required of a leader post-incorporation, might perhaps be as seen by DePree (1989) who thought that 'it is a leader's responsibility to define reality for their followers' (p.72) - the reality of new teaching contracts, reduced funding, increase in the number of students, resources clearly allied to student needs, flexible and responsive curriculum and an increase in the use of new technology. This might bring about concern in the leader wondering if they are able to cope with the uncertainties ahead but, as an effective leader they set the tone. Schutz (1982) argued that 'when the leader is

frightened, uncertain, domineering, incompetent or irresponsible the staff reflect these traits' (p.12). There are changes in the role and thus identity of the leader i.e. from principal working with governors and LEA to chief executive sharing responsibility with governors but now accountable to a quango, the FEFC. These changes will require time to get used to and will also require support whilst they are occurring. Nias (1987) notes that changes in occupational identity involve feelings in losing control, anxiety and conflict. This is particularly so if a principal very closely associates him or her self with the college.

Change and the fear of change may be what drives a leader in an organisation but if they are to be effective they have to enable the college to cope with present and future change. The leader has several functions in order to be effective in this period of change and Jacobs and Jacques (1987) define the role of the leader as someone working at the strategic level in two areas - the interaction of the organisation with the external environment and the development of the internal environment to prepare it for future changes. The leader should continuously monitor the balance between current output and future need, accompanied by re-programming of systems resources as required to ensure that neither efficiency nor adaptability are compromised. Sergiovanni (1982) proposes that the leader of an institution should have a strategic view but should also consider how this might affect their colleagues, 'the...leader concentrates on two areas: the leader's vision about the direction the organisation should go, and the leader's noncoercive skill at drawing subordinates into the active pursuit of the strategic view' (p.178). The role of the leader has been recognised as providing vision whose result would be the recognition of change, the management of change and the expectation of change.

Senge (1990) considered that leaders were designers, teachers and stewards. He further felt that they required the ability to build shared vision, to bring to the surface and challenge prevailing mental models, and to foster more systemic patterns of thinking. Leaders are responsible for building organisations where people are continually expanding their capabilities to shape their future. He also decided that building an organisation's culture and shaping its evolution is the unique and essential function of leadership. The nature of effective leadership varies with individual leader approaches even if they follow the factors as presented i.e. vision or story being important. The vision is considered to be a necessity by Groth (1995)

...as it provides a focus not only for the Chief Executive but also for all the staff of the college. A closely-defined vision for an organisation serves as a business for identifying and selecting the organisation's immediate and longer-term grades (p.55).

The current Chief Inspector for Schools, Chris Woodhead stated in his 1997 annual report (summarised by Bleach (1998)) the importance of 'one key component - vision - is crucial to helping heads provide clear direction for their schools' (p27). Bleach also added his own support for the need for vision, based on his research on the work of a head teacher in the West Midlands and he found 'It can take time, yet schools have proved to be powerful institutions for effectiveness precisely because their head's vision has become widely grounded in everyone's activities'(p.27). Handy (1995) was certain all studies on leadership agree that, 'A leader shapes and shares a vision which gives point to the work of others' (p.106). Some researchers ascribe other 'dimensions' but still appear to place an importance on vision; for example Hickman and Silva (1984) argued that the two bases of effective leadership are strategic thinking and culture building. 'Strategic thinking creates the vision of an

organisations future. The vision becomes a reality when the leader builds a culture that is dedicated to the vision' (p.588). According to Fullan (1991) this vision 'should permeate the organisation with values, purposes and integrity for both the what and how of improvement' (p.81). Bennis and Nanus (1985) suggest that the effective leader has a unique dream or vision, which helps in describing a view of an attractive and attainable future for the organisation which acts as, or should be used as, a way of motivating members of an organisation. Lawler (1984), Gardner (1995) too consider that vision is a vital quality of leadership; as Gardner wrote,

I construe leadership as a transaction that occurs within (and between) the minds of leaders and followers. A leader is an individual who creates a story - a mental representation - that significantly affects the thoughts, behaviours, and feelings - the mental representations - of a significant number of persons (p.15). (In this statement the term interaction may be more appropriate than that of transaction)

Story sharing, i.e. a way of illustrating and describing a vision, is one of the communication functions of a leader and Fullan (1982) found openness of communication and collaboration were features of schools in which the management of change was being carried out successfully.

Trow (1985) wrote of leadership in higher education in the USA and argues, that 'leadership is an essential aspect of American higher education and nowhere more so than in the case of the Chief Executive' (p.142). He further describes that the form of leadership:

shows itself along four dimensions - symbolic, political, managerial and academic:

symbolic leadership is the ability to express, to project the character and direction of the institution, its central goals and values;

political leadership is the ability to resolve the conflicting demands of his many constituencies, and in gaining their support for the institution's goals and purposes;

managerial leadership is the capacity to direct and co-ordinate the support activities of the institution staff, budget and plant;
academic leadership is the ability to recognise excellence in teaching, learning and research and to maintain and improve academic standards in the institution (p.143).

(This same theme is used by Marsh (1992) and Gregory (1996) in considering leadership in FE and will be considered later in the text).

Trow's emphasis on values, above, shows the importance that leaders should place on this area of their responsibility. It is important for leaders to identify them clearly and express them, and to 'live them' in their leadership process. Post-incorporation, principals in England and Wales are finding it difficult to come to terms with the potential change in values of a more business-like approach to FE. Stott and Lawson (1997) in a survey of women principals in England found that many of these principals were finding it difficult to reconcile the principles of 'service' with the requirements of the modern business of FE and found particularly that conflicts of interest during the last few years i.e. 1993-97 'have made it more difficult to maintain the principles of integrity and openness which are their core values' (p.33). Holmes (1993), reporting on a UK project with primary and secondary heads, found

senior staff in British Schools are on the whole reluctant to articulate important educational values beyond the platitudes... they find it awkward, inappropriate or otherwise difficult to articulate these values or to incorporate them into a range of tasks and activities typical of headship (p.26).

He did not state why this was so; perhaps it was the British reserve of those in public/responsible positions in showing they care passionately about something.

Block (1987) recognised this inhibition and proposed

The embarrassment we may feel is really our vulnerability at taking a stance of innocence in the midst of an environment that seems sophisticated, hard-nosed and pragmatic. Surrounded by a preoccupation with safety, control and approval, we stand naked and

declare that there are certain deeper values, often spiritual ones, that we are giving top priority (p.115).

Thus a vision is an expression of hope and idealism. It oversimplifies the world and implies that anything is possible, and it forms an important basis for the leadership of an organisation.

Values are important aspects for some observers in defining leadership. They are linked to the vision as they suggest the rules for achieving the vision. Burns (1978) proposed that leadership is:

leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivation - the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations of both leaders and followers ... Leadership, unlike naked power-wielding, is thus inseparable from followers' needs and goals (p.19).

Sale(1997) too feels that 'personal qualities and values are central' (p.17) for successful leadership.

Rajan and van Eupen (1997) researched leadership in the service sector in medium and large companies and proposed:

the leadership skills required in the new workplace are very different from the ones that were needed in the command-and-control model that prevailed previously. Among the top five skills identified as being important, at least three are people-related ones.

Top, with almost 80% of leaders placing it top was 'Ability to inspire trust and motivation;

second - visioning;

third - ability, willingness and self-discipline to listen;

fourth - strategic thinking;

fifth - interpersonal communication skills (p.26).

It might be expected that such skills would also be appropriate for people-centred education. Those researchers who confined themselves to studying education leaders

offered detailed insights into their roles. Benezet, Katz and Magnussen (1981)

classified presidents as:

founding presidents - those who set up a new institution;
explorers- brings in new programmes and risky new plans;
the take-charge president - holds together an institution that is facing great difficulties;
the standard bearer - leads the institution that has "arrived";
the organisation president - is a pragmatic administrator;
and the moderator - is an egalitarian administrator who consults with and delegates a great deal to faculty members and student leaders (p.21)

Samuel (1996) when discussing the role of headteacher, added another form of 'president' - that of the manager-leader ' who is often seen as a manipulator with an unfailing short term tactical sense who is unsurpassed in handling the immediate issues. This type of leader is ideal at restoring confidence and self-esteem to a battered team' (p.20). Samuel did, however, warn that they served this purpose within three to four years. Perhaps a suitable time span for a government seeking success?

Chapter Three

Methodology: researching college leadership

What sort of people take on this awesome responsibility and this sort of target, of being a leader in a college? What qualities do they have that enable them to take a leadership role? If they take on the role are they able to fulfil it according to the theories and models proposed by researchers? Deciding on the role of the leader in further education both as defined by the Act and as defined by the actuality of the role as perceived, observed and received, discussed by other leaders, followers and external bodies will be the aim of this research. The literature has already shown what the researcher might consider - traits, behaviour, decision-making, style, the context and situations, qualities and skills, methods and models. There are the simplest definitions to work with, for example (Lord and Maher, 1996, p.11), 'we define leadership as the process of being perceived by others as a leader'. There are also more complex definitions which may provide a framework within which the researcher may concentrate effort. One that many authors too find acceptable as a 'working definition' is that of Bass (1990) who in his seminal handbook on leadership decided:

...there is sufficient similarity among definitions to permit a rough scheme of classification: leadership has been conceived as the focus of group processes, as a matter of personality, as a matter of inducing compliance, as the exercise of influence, as particular behaviour, as a form of persuasion, as a power relation, as an instrument to achieve goals, as an effect of interaction, as a differential role, as initiation of structure, and as many combinations of these definitions (p.11).

He developed this further and concluded by providing his own definition in the handbook :

Leadership is an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members. Leaders are agents of change - persons whose acts affect other people more than other people's acts affect them. Leadership occurs when one group member modifies the motivation or competencies of others in the group (p.11).

The worth of such leadership research has been questioned but it would appear that there is enough evidence to justify another approach to the research of leadership as despite the enormous amount written about leadership very little has been written about leadership in further education. There is also some evidence to support returning to what could be considered an old fashioned approach i.e. that of traits although in this study they are attributes that within them may well accord to some of the earlier trait models. Lord et al (1984) put forward the idea that leaders within a specific business context e.g. in the case of this study, education, share a number of attributes. Hollander and Offerman (1989) also supported the idea that many traits characterised leaders in what he termed categories e.g. education, business, military. The categories share some of the traits but the overlap of numbers of traits will vary according to the category. Gronn (1996) with reference to Gouldner (1950 pp17-18) suggested that a leader is a person 'who stimulates patterning of the behaviour in some group' but, whose influence 'may be grounded in any perceived skill, attribute or endowment' (p.9). More recent analysis of trait theory also provides support for the use of traits as House and Aditya (1997) propose that there appear to be a number of traits that consistently differentiate leaders from others. These are '...physical energy, intelligence greater than the average intelligence of followers led, adjustment, self-confidence, achievement motivation[i.e. the will to succeed for own individual satisfaction], power motive and assertiveness motivation' (p.417).

For the researcher there was little available empirical evidence for further education in the literature to call on. There is, however, a considerable wealth of research on the qualities, abilities, attributes and skills of the Chief Executive or CEO of other organisations both public and private with much of this being carried out by researchers in the United States.

Such information I think justify my method in seeking attributes of principals in colleges and I am intending to use the information on leadership from research elsewhere with the assumption that it is likely to be applicable to a wide range of organisations. The results will show if this assumption is credible. There has been a noticeable increase in the last two or three years of research/discussion on the effective leader in schools and a recent decision of the Government to set up Regional Training Centres for Headteachers may indicate the importance of the headteacher role. The Teacher Training Agency has set up a new National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) in which they recognise National Standards for Headteachers. In their work with Headteachers they have clearly seen Pountney (1997): 'strong leadership at all levels is a major aid to improving school effectiveness' (p.1). They have produced a list of the qualities for headteachers. The Teacher Training Agency in 1997 published its National Standards for headteachers and set out the knowledge, understanding, skills and attributes which relate to the key areas of headship. The standards were placed into five parts, of which one was a list of skills and attributes. The list is as printed below:

Leadership skills, attributes and professional competence: the ability to lead and manage people to work as individuals and as a team towards a common goal.

Headteachers should be able to:

- i) create and secure commitment to a clear vision for an effective institution;
- ii) initiate and manage change and improvement in pursuit of strategic objectives;
- iii) prioritise, plan and organise;
- iv) direct and co-ordinate the work of others;
- v) build and support a high-performing team;
- vi) work as part of a team;
- vii) devolve responsibilities, delegate tasks and monitor practice to see that they are being carried out; motivate and inspire pupils, staff, parents, governors and the wider community;
- viii) set standards and provide a role model for pupils and staff;
- ix) seek advice and support when necessary;
- x) deal sensitively with people and resolve conflicts;
- xi) use appropriate leadership styles in different situations and understand their likely effects.

Headteachers should possess and display the attributes of:

- i) personal impact and presence;
- ii) resilience;
- iii) adaptability to changing circumstance and new ideas;
- iv) energy, vigour and perseverance;
- v) self-confidence;
- vi) reliability;
- vii) enthusiasm;
- viii) intellectual ability;
- ix) integrity;
- x) commitment.

Headteachers should have the professional competence and expertise to:

- i) command credibility through the discharge of their functions and to influence others;
- ii) provide professional direction to the work of others;
- iii) make informed use of inspection and research findings;
- iv) apply good practice from other sectors and organisations (p.4 -5.)

This list of attributes, skills and competencies may be compared with those attributes used in the questionnaire for principals (See Appendix 1) although it covers characteristics other than attributes. Such a list also illustrates the hopes of Government that the leader of a school will be effective if in possession of these skills. It is also illustrative of the number of lists defining leadership that are available

to the researcher. The researcher has therefore drawn heavily on this form of research carried out on the roles and effectiveness of CEO in organisations other than Colleges of FE.

A number of other researchers have suggested, rather like the Teacher Training Agency, a whole range of factors that may be considered when endeavouring to identify leadership characteristics and from which the researcher may produce a measuring instrument. Of the many examples in the literature the following are considered to be relevant and illustrative for the current research study.

Yukl (1989) came up with 23 functions of leadership but combined them to form 11 functions - networking, supporting, managing conflict and team building, motivating, recognising and rewarding, planning and organising, problem solving, consulting and delegating, monitoring, informing and clarifying. What sort of person takes on such functions? As early as the 1940s, Harding (1949) distinguished 21 types of educational leader: the autocrat, co-operator, elder statesman, eager beaver, pontifical type, muddled person, loyal staff person, prophet, scientist, mystic, dogmatist, open-minded person, philosopher, business expert, benevolent despot, child protector, laissez-faire type, community minded person, cynic, optimist and democrat.

Katz and Kahn (1978) proposed three functions of a leader which are summarised as:-

- (i) The introduction of structural change (policy formation);
- (ii) the interpretation of structure (piecing out the incompleteness of the existing formal structure);

(iii) the use of the structure that is formally provided to keep the organisation in motion and effective operation(administration).

The oft quoted Machiavelli (1513, p.29) warned of the consequences of leadership responsibility 'There is nothing more difficult to take in hand, more perilous to conduct, or more uncertain in its success, than to take the lead in the introduction of new things.' He also suggested the qualities required for leadership. He believed that leaders needed steadiness, firmness and concern for the maintenance of authority, power and order in government. He suggested there were alternatives - if these did not prove successful - craft, deceit, threat, treachery, and violence were required. Others too have provided warnings of the difficulties of leadership and the qualities required to be effective N.M. Tichy and M.A. Devanna (1990) proposed the following traits:- sensing the right time to reinvest, initiating the creative-destructive forces necessary to transform an organisation is an ability that few leaders and few institutions nurture....First when people are accustomed to one point of view, they will reject another even if it makes more sense, and second, leadership that departs from familiar beliefs demands courage to see the truth and even greater courage to tell the truth. Third, unconscious assumptions and unquestioned beliefs are frequently a barrier to real progress. Fourth, leadership should not be confused with popularity. Truth is not always welcome to those who confuse illusion and reality. They also add

Many researchers and authors are very definite on what characterises a leader and what qualities or traits a leader should have although researchers appeared to dismiss the worth of such work in the 70s. Amongst those areas where such traits have been identified are studies in leadership in the country that has introduced and built upon a

quality approach to leadership and management i.e. Japan, and in his book espousing the virtues of 'Kaizen', Barnes (1996) spells out the personality traits of what he calls Kaizen leaders. The ideal Kaizen leader is:

open-minded, able to conceptualise, intelligent and able and willing to learn new behaviour, team-oriented, flexible and adaptable, self-disciplined and self-motivated, a first-class communicator of ideas, loyal to him or her team and their company, responsive to his or her own leaders, perceptually attentive (p.61).

(Kaizen is a Japanese term, as applied to the workplace usually in manufacturing industry, for continuous improvement, Imai (1986))

Hitt (1992) lists 25 competencies of leadership that are grouped under the five headings of ; reasoning, coping, knowing, behaving, being. Blank (1995) highlights what he calls the nine natural laws of leadership defining a natural law as 'the intelligence or order that explains the patterns of behaviour and interaction of leadership' (p.9). He lists these as :

1. A leader has willing followers-allies
2. 'Leadership' is a field of interaction - a relationship between leaders and followers - allies.
3. Leadership occurs as an event
4. Leaders operate outside the boundaries of organisationally defined procedures
5. Leaders use influence beyond formal authority
6. Leadership involves risk and uncertainty
7. Not everyone will follow a leader's initiative
8. Consciousness - information processing capacity - creates leadership
9. Leadership is a self-referral process. Leaders and followers process information from their own subjective, internal frame of reference (p.9).

Such studies and their production of 'lists' of characteristics are helpful in defining the leadership role and leadership styles as well as endeavouring to determine what attributes may assist in leadership effectiveness which in turn will ensure the successful leadership of an organisation.

Researchers such as Byrd (1987) have suggested that there are other, perhaps broader categories of attributes that would help fuel the leadership debate and offers a group of 'skills' that he had been able to draw together from the literature and his own experience:

- (1) anticipatory skills - a leader must accept that the world is constantly changing this entails projecting consequences, risks and trade-offs; actively seeking to be informed and to inform; and proactively establishing work relationships.
- (2) visioning - a leader must be able to create mental and verbal pictures of desirable future states, persisting and persevering, and sharing and creating a new reality with others.
- (3) value-congruence - a leader must know and understand the organisations guiding beliefs, being willing to act consistently as a person of principle, and having and using the ability to teach others the values of the organisation
- (4) empowerment - leaders must be willing to share power; take delight in other's development more than having control; and realising that visions are achieved by teams, not by single leaders.
- (5) self-understanding - leaders must be willing to search for personal identity and growth, appreciating that personal ego strength is a requirement for leading, being open to feedback and other performance data, and having a frame of reference by which to understand and arouse motivation (p.35).

The perspective of followers

Not all research on leadership has been carried out by analysing the role of leaders with leaders; much has been done on analysing the views of followers. A recent survey of business leaders in which their senior managers determined the essential attributes of such leaders was reported by Carrington (1994). She found that the most important five attributes were listed as those of people who -build effective teams, listen, surround themselves with the right people, make decisions on their own and retain good people. (Most of the senior managers went on to report that they considered that their bosses did not have these attributes!). They also identified the

most important tasks for leaders which they considered were - 'planning and action for long-term profitability; creating a climate for initiative and creativity; improving teamwork and co-operation; creating a climate of honesty and integrity; employee satisfaction and motivation' (p.45). Lank (1985), who interviewed 33 graduate engineers as part of a team training initiative asked them about their views on leadership based on their experience of being led and found that they offered almost as many descriptions of leadership as there were interviewees. He grouped the features that were put forward in these interviews into a number of categories; personality traits - the commonest was to be honest, straight forward and open; objective setting; delegation; communication and motivation. Honesty as an important attribute of leadership is seen by most people when asked the personal characteristics of leaders Hogan et al (1994), Lord, Foti and De Vader (1984), and Weiss and Adler (1981). Hogan et al, (1994), report 'most people seem to regard intelligence, honesty, sociability, understanding, aggressiveness, verbal skills, determination, and industriousness as important aspects of leadership...' (p.497). Hollander and Offerman (1990) proposed that 'the emphasis has shifted from traits to follower attribution of leaders that make followers respond affirmatively or otherwise to their leader. These perceptions are checked against prototypes held by followers of leader attributes and how leaders should perform' (p.84).

The perceptions of researchers and of followers should be seen alongside those of the leaders themselves. Peppers and Ryan (1985) found, when 79 individuals who occupied leadership positions were contrasted with 110 who did not, the leaders differed from the non leaders in three different ways:

1. They saw themselves as more talkative, aggressive, intelligent, committed and ambitious.
2. They aspired to be more sensitive, democratic, fair, committed, imaginative, confident and self-assured.
3. There was more congruence between the leaders' aspirations and self-perceptions than between the non-leaders.

According to Holmes (1993),

It is now conventional to see the composite of leadership as comprising a range of skills and competencies, as well as the traditional attributes. These are sometimes described in action terms - plan, organise, delegate and sometimes in more reflective terms - judgement sensitivity (p.11).

This study should help define more clearly what principals and governors consider are the attributes of effective leaders in further education which should enable a greater understanding of the leadership of further education. McLoughlin (1994) raises the issue of attributes and gives a discomfiting picture of their potential use in the study. As he considers, 'Consensus on what leadership is appears confused. Agreement on words used to describe the attributes of leaders - vision, dedication, charisma, judgement and empowerment - is low' (p.41).

Leadership and the Chief Executive Officer role.

There may well be some caution attached to these attributes and qualities of leaders as they may only be of interest or concern if such attributes mean effective leadership. Judgement of such effectiveness in itself appears, certainly in education, more a qualitative assessment than a quantitative one and is usually based on a number of suggested performance indicators or on the views of their peers.

Even with the qualities as specified by researchers effective leadership may not take place because the decision-making of the leader may be affected by a number of factors which may not have been identified in their studies. One research study has decided that a set of five forces are important when considering leadership; Jackofsky and Sloan Jr (1988) consider that these five forces come into play at the point of a leader's decision making and consist of :

- (1) the degree to which the task environment permits variety and change
- (2) the degree to which the structure of the organisation itself is amenable to change and reinforces the [Chief Executive Officer] CEO's behaviours
- (3) the strategy pursued by the organisation
- (4) particular managerial characteristics (e.g. personality traits, educational backgrounds, interpersonal skills) of the CEO and
- (5) the cultural values of the CEO (p70).

This is yet another study reminding us that the role of a leader is complex and has a tremendous number of variables to be taken into consideration particularly when decisions are to be made on the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of leaders. Thus, any use of attributes in defining leadership or the role of leaders should be treated with some circumspection.

This has not prevented many researchers from giving what they consider to be valid and reliable lists or descriptions of attributes that are found in effective leaders. Levinson and Rosenthal studied six CEO and concluded they had a number of traits in common that enabled them to be effective leaders. They were persuasive and had good interpersonal skills, were characterised by restless dissatisfaction with the organisation's performance, provided a climate for risk taking, had good conceptual skills to make sense out of the messy, uncertain environments in which they worked, and were good at interpreting what was going on within their organisations and thus

helped define reality. Such reality or at least a leader's view of it has to be shared by or agreed with followers. Tichy and Ulrich (1984) isolated the following factors which they thought helped define the 'real picture' as understood by the leader in an organisation: a leader provides the organisation with a vision of some desired future state; must be able to mobilise commitment to that vision and transmit his or her vision into reality; must understand the environment, the organisation, and the motivational needs of members of the organisation. Additional skills include the ability of the leader to understand, analyse, and manage the requirements of various stakeholders who play major roles in organisational success. The leader must also manage the culture, human resource systems, reward systems, and structure so that these systems are in line with the desired changes.

From the early work of Robert Neuschel (1970) with Chief Executives in organisations it is possible to draw the conclusion that the CEO's role is less to make all key decisions himself than to develop an organisation and a process by which decisions can be made. Such organisational development involves three areas of responsibility according to Sheen (1983) when he, as a principal, spoke about the role of college principal as being made up of, 'three main roles; academic leadership, staff leadership, managerial responsibility' (p. 440). Some of Sheen's colleagues at a conference on the roles of principal indicated, 'the rich variety and range of responsibilities attached to their posts' (p.386). This complexity of the leadership role in colleges and schools is a recurring theme but it fails to recognise that any role is likely to be complex whether within educational organisations or not.

John Adair (1992) in discussing the work of John Hildreth, serves to remind us of the guidelines in the 1992 Act for the responsibilities of the CEO and the Corporation, in suggesting that the CEO must lead both the board and the organisation; this includes running the people who are running the show. In essence the CEO represents a fine compromise between the need of any organisation for a recognisable leader, and the needs of the parties interested in an enterprise for a committee to protect and balance their interests. To succeed in this most difficult of roles requires of the CE good health, good humour, a resilience not given to many and the powers of persuasion and personal leadership needed in both boardroom and workshop. The idea of a college having a CEO is new to further education and may or may not be perceived as a new role. Jackofsky and Sloan Jr. (1988) perceive that:

A chief executive's role behaviour is not random. These behaviours are orientations affected by a set of five forces. According to the literature the Chief Executive's [CE] decision-making domain is a function of: 1. The degree to which the task environment permits variety and change; 2. The degree to which the structure of the organisation itself is amenable to change and reinforces the CE's behaviours; 3. The strategy pursued by the firm; 4. Particular managerial characteristics of the CE (e.g personality traits, educational backgrounds, interpersonal skills) ; 5. The cultural values of the CE (p.70).

Farkas and Wetlaufer (1996) interviewed 160 CEOs from around the world and hypothesised that there might turn out to be 160 approaches to leadership. There were not. Only 5 distinct approaches emerged from their data. They determined that a leadership approach is a coherent, explicit style of management, not a reflection of personal style. They found that in effective companies, CEOs did not simply adopt the leadership approach that suited their personalities but instead adopted the approach that would best meet the needs of the organisation and the business situation at hand. The 5 approaches they identified were

- (1) The strategy approach - the most important job is to create and put into practice a long-term strategy, which was favoured by 20% of those reviewed;
- (2) The human-assets approach - the primary job is to impart their values, behaviours and attitudes to individuals throughout the organisations, which was favoured by 22% of those reviewed;
- (3) The expertise approach - what is most important is the use of their particular expertise to provide a competitive advantage, which was favoured by 15% of those reviewed;
- (4) The box approach - it becomes important to develop and provide a set of controls or clear framework to ensure there is the same standard of customer and staff care throughout the organisation, which was favoured by 30% of those reviewed;
- (5) The change approach - the most critical role is to create an environment of almost continuous improvement and change, which was favoured by 15% of those reviewed (p.121).

Not all leaders are expected to use one approach exclusively; some may overlap two or more of the approaches. Farkas and Wetlaufer (1996) went on to summarise, 'The five approaches that emerged from our research are the five ways that many CEOs choose to deliver clarity, consistency, and commitment.' (p.122)

There are thus lots of views with little consistent agreement on the approach to define or study the leadership of a CEO. In part this may be due to the changing nature of the organisations themselves; even though they are all colleges they have different staff and structures and serve different communities. The complex role of a college principal is not only that of the CEO but also that of the senior academic and what Becher and Kogan (1980) point out as a 'dual system of hierarchy and collegium running through the system' (p.64). Such views are reinforced by the work of Hughes (1976) in his work with headteachers. He describes their two sub-roles of headship as leading professional and chief executive and suggests:

The innovating head, it appears, relies partly on exerting influence on staff colleagues as fellow professionals ; equally, however, he accepts his position as chief executive, and uses the organisational controls which are available to him to get things moving. Professional and

executive considerations reinforce each other as complementary aspects of a coherent and unified strategy (p.58).

Leadership as a process in a context

There are too, some cautions in all this work on leaders and leadership, not the least of which is from Hosking (1988), who reminds researchers of the shortcomings of researching leaders and what they do in isolation from the leadership process. She argues that in many studies there is confusion on the part of the researcher about leadership when seen as a property of leaders i.e. leadership is not a characteristic of leaders but should be seen as a process having particular social and cognitive dimensions. Clemmer and McNeil (1990) endorse the view that 'Leadership is a series of actions, not a position. Leadership is a pro-active state of generating energy to catalyse change and encourage performance' (p.111). Any research should therefore recognise the relationship between the process of leadership and the attributes of leaders within that process. Gardner (1995) also reminds the researcher of a particular approach he and others feels is important, 'our understanding of the nature and process of leadership would be enhanced if we examined renowned and recognised leaders' (p.26). In seeking the information from the principals this research has taken note of Gardner's comments. It has also taken cognisance of the comments by Burns (1978) who noted 'The study of leadership in general will be advanced by looking at leaders in particular' (p.27). It is expected that this study will continue this debate perhaps encouraged by Handy (1995) who when considering a

definition of leadership commented thoughtfully how, 'Like beauty or love, we know it when we see it but cannot easily define it or produce it on demand' (p.105).

This does not prevent an examination of the qualities or attributes of a leader whilst recognising that the role of leader will be occurring in a process that may be termed leadership. The study will be of people who have been designated as leaders by dint of the role they occupy or perceived to occupy within their organisations. The researcher, as he is at almost every step of this investigative process, is cautioned, on this occasion by Laurence (1985) saying,

Many are called leaders by virtue of their being ahead of the pack or at the top of the pyramid, and that is one definition of the word leader. But being out front or on top denotes only position and not the qualities of leadership. There is significant difference being in charge and being a leader (p.192-93).

House and Aditya (1997), Finkelstein and Hambrick (1996) use the term "strategic leadership" for the leadership function of executives who have overall responsibility for an organisation,. Morley and Hosking (1984) saw the leader as the person with the top rank in the status hierarchy of a group or organisation. He or she has a special responsibility to create and maintain stability and order in the group. They also conclude that it is important to recognise that,

Leadership involves the role relationships between the leader and other members and instrumentalities for co-ordinating interaction. The leadership process centres around (a) the initiation of policy decisions and activities within the group and with outsiders (b) following their course as they are executed; and (c) applying for sanctions for non-compliance (p.74).

The study will be able to compare the perceptions of a leader by the governors of further education corporations with the actuality of a leader from the principals themselves. It is hoped that the study will also examine to a limited extent the

complexity of the further education environment within which the principal is expected to lead.

Measuring and theorising about leadership may be uncertain and the lack of clarity on leadership theories may according to Grint (1995) imply that leadership, 'is a social construction that needs constant action for its effective reproduction' (p.152). Such reproduction has to be available as critics argue that 'leadership is the single most critical factor in the success or failure of institutions' (Bass, 1990, p.8). Mintzberg and Waters (1982), summarised in Bass (1990), examined the evolution of a retail firm over a 60-year period and found that a senior executive could successfully reorient the firm by intervening to change previous strategies and organisational structures. This importance of the leader is seen when a leader is replaced.

In a paper on leadership in further education Marsh (1992) states that the leader undoubtedly shapes in four dimensions the character and direction of any college. These four dimensions represent the totality and complexity of leadership in an education context. The four dimensions are supported by Gregory (1996) who confirmed that they were:

symbolic - in which the leader embodies the whole institution, winning the commitment of others to organisational goals, obtaining resources, and presenting the corporate image to the external world ; political - in which the leader deals effectively with all the constituents within and without the college; managerial i.e. performing the management function of the Chief executive; academic - with the leader being the best professional, leading others in a collegiate style, recognising and encouraging quality, fostering and developing talent, intervening, coaching, being a role-model of exemplary behaviour, taking risks and acting as an agent of change (p.48).

In shaping the direction of the college it would appear to be all too easy, given many of the financial constraints in a modern college of FE, to forget the followers required for any leader. One of the dilemmas facing educational leaders is that many of the characteristics which 'followers' associate with good leaders are very subjective characteristics; often honesty, credibility, being forward-looking and competency, for example leaders in education must be more than functional, they must inspire confidence in the validity of the direction they are going and take others with them: staff, parents, students, governors and the community. Not all non-educational researchers recognise the social aspect of leadership as this is not felt to be important in their particular industry.

As a result of research including a literature review, Ayman (1993) concluded that

Leadership is a social interaction, and similar to all social interactions, perception and interpretation are critical to understanding the process. An observer may be more affected by what he or she believes occurred than by an absolute act of the leader that may be recorded objectively (p.137).

This serves to remind the current researcher to endeavour to avoid the bias that working in the sector in a non CEO position may occur.

Leadership succession and selection

In considering the leadership role of principals it may be difficult to determine where their leadership role is distinct from that of the governors (variously called the corporation, corporation members, boards, board members, trustees). The FEFC recognised the potential confusion even though the 1992 Act sets out clear responsibilities for governors and principals, and produced guidelines for governors. This identifies the major responsibility of governors as selecting and working with

‘senior post holders’. This responsibility of course is fundamental to the success or otherwise of the college. In particular the new role of sole responsibility for recruitment and selection of a principal is a crucial activity. In the work of House & Singh (1987) they reviewed the studies of the effects of top management succession on organisational performance. These studies showed, more often than not, executive succession makes a substantial difference in the performance of an organisation. However, the limitations on the effects of executives are substantial, resulting from a number of sources as well as the conditions under which chief executives assume their role. For example executive succession has been found to result in increased organisational performance when the predecessor is a non-dominant individual...when the succeeding CEO has the ability to cope with organisational uncertainties, a history of competence, relevant knowledge and external influence, and personal attributes that match the demands of the organisation. Further, executive succession has also been found to result in increased organisational performance when succession is orderly and planned, the organisation’s members do not have personal ties, and organisations are relatively less bureaucratic. The latter’s conditions are likely to allow newly appointed CEOs to make strategic changes more easily.

There are few studies on the succession of principals in colleges and any research appears to be from work in the USA and based on succession in schools superintendents or principals. In the literature, although the evidence was limited, administrators recruited from outside the organisation brought about more change from those recruited from within the organisation (Ganz and Hoy, 1977; Knedlik, 1968. Reynolds (1966) however, found that those recruited from inside initially made less change than those recruited from outside, but increased the amount of change they

implemented, in increasing amounts, in later years of their tenure. Ogawa (1995) has carried out a literature review on the research of administrative succession, i.e. those individuals who in some cases may have the responsibility for leading a school district rather than a specific school or college (superintendents) or will be leaders of a school or college (principals). Succession in these examples by Ogawa is as a result largely of replacement of leaders to improve performance. There is little evidence of replacement due to poor performance in FE in England but more likely for retirement or promotion. Until the mid 1990s as a result of OFSTED the reporting of replacement due to poor performance has not been indicated. Some FE corporations have begun to offer short fixed term contracts i.e. for three or five years to enable them perhaps to judge the performance of the principal. The Association of Principals of Colleges warned its members of the dangers of such contracts. Administrator succession has been defined by Grusky (1961) as the process of replacing key officials in organisations; in schools or colleges this would mean creating a framework for selection criteria. In summarising the findings, Ogawa (1995) proposed two criteria that were considered to be important in selecting and appointing administrators, suggesting that those successors who manifest these two skills can evoke positive responses from subordinates and will be effective leaders. He put forward the proposal that,

The important skills are (a) showing consideration for subordinates and (b) demonstrating task-related expertise or competence...In addition it may be particularly important to document the consideration of in-house candidates for administrative posts, because one study indicates that insiders may be more authoritarian and less likely to show emotional attachment to subordinates (p.383).

Daly and Schwenk (1996) looked not at the responsibilities of the board but at its make-up and identified a number of models of approach to the construction of boards.

They put forward what they called a Board Dominance Model in which the boards were made up of outsiders to the organisation and the CEO 'has discretion to manage the affairs of the corporation but has at all times, the oversight of the board in its service, control, and resource-based roles' (p.197). This may well be the preferred model of a principal of an FE college but is not that proposed by statute. Coulson-Thomas (1994) in his work with some 50 boards suggests that most chairmen believe the effectiveness of their companys' boards could be improved and that the effective board composed of a united team of competent directors, may be the exception rather than the rule:

Whether or not a company grows or declines depends upon the purpose and direction established by the board...Whether or not managers display leadership qualities can, in turn, depend upon the extent to which they are motivated and empowered by the board. Some boards stifle initiative while others encourage it. Too many boards fail to provide their organisations with a distinctive and compelling rationale for existence (p.3).

The role of principal and boards may still be 'settling down' after the changes of the 1992 Act but the relationship of boards and CEOs has been researched in other industries and may be applicable to the new structures of FE. Not all of the relationships are seen as beneficial. As Aram et al (1995) point out, 'An increasing number of corporate critics, government officials, academics and managers are concerned with the apparent defects of corporate boards' (p.23). They argue that the role and effectiveness of boards are largely functions of the relationship between board members and the CEO. The relationships may be open or defensive or devious but they are critical to the success of the organisation. Dulewicz et al (1995) recognised that the greatest influence on the effectiveness of boards was not between the board and the CEO but between the chairman and the CEO. The influence of boards on the CEO may be recognised as being in order to optimise the decision

making of the CEO. Zajac (1990) found that in general this influence occurred in three ways: 1. In hiring a CEO a board is able to decide whether to hire an insider (e.g. someone who is already working within the college) or an outsider (e.g. someone who is working in another college or organisation); 2. The board may offer incentives to the CEO e.g. performance related pay; 3. The board chooses the successor to the present incumbent.

In considering the role of the boards this particular research concentrates on their appointment of successors and the attributes they consider are important in that appointment. This role of appointing the successor is vital to the success or continued success of a college and is emphasised by a study of the American Council of Education (1986) which stated in the foreword:

History shows that a college or university might be elevated to a higher level of significance, continue on its traditional course, or begin on a slippery path toward failure as a direct result of the person selected by the board to lead its institution.

The responsibility of a college corporation for selection is therefore a vital one , particularly if the employment of principals in FE reflects that of the 'Fortune' top 500 CEOs studied since 1960 when 19% served for three years or less and 25% served for 10 years or more (Vancil, 1987). More recent studies by Farkas and Wetlaufer (1996) have shown that 'between 35% and 50% of all CEOs are replaced within 5 years' (p.110). That is a costly proposition for any organisation, for no college can lose its leader without losing some sense, even temporarily, of its identity and direction.

Choice of methods

In carrying out the study any method(s) used would have to be acceptable to the CEO of an FE College some of whom feel that they work in a unique organisation within a unique education environment. Marsh (1983, p. 276) supports this view in looking at human resource management in education; 'too many educationalists for too long believed that education is somehow different from any other organisational process and has to be treated idiosyncratically'. Whilst they consider that industry might learn from them and indeed should and do use them for their training needs the management of colleges feel they are too different from industry to receive their wisdom. "What does he know about FE?" was overheard at a conference on Total Quality Management just as the Personnel Director of IBM(Europe) was about to speak. One of the unintended outcomes of this study may be the recognition that a further education college is not unique and has similar needs to other organisations.

The need was to identify a method that would provide the necessary information about the leadership attributes as seen by the principals/CEOs themselves without being burdensome. To some extent such an approach also ignores the more modern acceptance that leadership occurs throughout the organisation by appropriate individuals. (Caldwell and Spinks, 1988; Giroux, 1992; Purpel, 1989; Sergiovanni, 1992). Much of the research on leaders has been carried out by asking about or testing the perceptions of followers or so-called subordinates, some of which may be college students who are provided with scenarios in which they have to assume they are subordinates. The validity of work with followers considering the qualities or attributes of a leader has been brought into question as a result of unintentional bias of

both the researcher and the followers. According to Phillips (1984) such inaccuracies are due to poor memory-based judgements in answer to questions or being asked to review so-called leadership behaviour in simulated activities. This was most noticeable where observers were asked to consider categories of leadership or leader types. Whilst this may mean that principals too may have memory lapses that may be primed by the questions they should be on very familiar ground as they are very active in the role. Although some work has been carried out in schools, e.g. Jones (1987), rather than in colleges such research does, however, have findings that may be relevant to the selection and support of principals in FE. However, this research recognises that as so little is known about the characteristics of the leadership role and responsibilities of a principal/CEO in FE a questionnaire approach would seem the most efficient method. As a vice-principal the researcher is only too aware of the demands made on the time of a principal and hence any survey method had to take up little time and yet provide sufficient information on which to base sound conclusions. A questionnaire to be completed by principals appears to be a suitable method.

There were already recognised methods in seeking to identify management abilities and leadership training agenda in the industrial context including some using questionnaires. The most common is probably the Myers-Briggs test (Myers, 1963) which requires not only an accredited trainer to deliver the test but also is time-consuming and costly to carry out. Myers -Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is a registered trade mark of Consulting Psychologists Press Inc. and may be used to examine what they call the 'Type Dynamics of Leadership'. Gardner & Martinko (1996) have expressed a view that 'Concerns about the MBTI's psychometric

properties have had several researchers to recommend alternative measures; others argue for its refinement' (p.77).

It is largely used in recruitment practice in the UK and this too made it unlikely to be acceptable to many principals. The test is also not tailor-made to the FE environment and whilst the researcher may feel that this is not important it is felt that principals might. Other researchers too have used forms of psychological assessment e.g. the Campbell Work Orientations (CWO) which is in three parts: an Interest Survey, Skills Survey, and Leadership Potential Index. Each requires questionnaires with at least 120 questions and has to be modified for specific occupational areas. (Campbell 1990) Whilst the model of a questionnaire is a reasonable one it is felt that the number of questions in the CWO is excessive.

Cunningham (1994) used the analysis of language employed by leaders from memos, letters, written communication with staff and training session delivery and presentations to staff to determine the characteristics of leaders. This appears to be one of the few non-questionnaire research approaches. The use of questionnaires is popular in the study of leaders and leadership with many of them being designed for research in the USA. Yammarinoo and Bass (1990) carried out a study to measure and assess transformational leadership in the United States Navy and they used a multi-factor officer questionnaire that was completed by officers and their subordinates. In view of the vocationally specific nature of the questionnaire it was felt to be inappropriate, despite its prevention of the "tick-box" syndrome as the multi-factor approach required thought and consideration to answer each question. Sashkin and Burke (1990) discussed a number of research approaches to leadership studies and in particular identified a New Questionnaire Instrument by Burke, in which he used an

18 question forced-choice questionnaire that was concerned with the attitude and value characteristics of particular leadership styles. They also described their Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire which consisted of 50 items in 10 groups of five, within the five were two negative and three positive statements to prevent the 'tick-box' style. The questions were directed to the person answering, e.g. I have a clear set of priorities; I didn't notice how others feel. This wording was thought to be too bold for principals in the UK but the length of the questionnaire appeared to be acceptable and once again a researcher had made an effort to ensure that those completing it read it rather than completing it without thought.

Another popular route is to use a series of questionnaires to be completed by members of staff for whom the principal is the direct or indirect line-manager. These might be based on versions of the Ohio State scales which have been much used (and much maligned in the United States) to determine the behavioural characteristics of learners. Schriesheim and Kerr (1976) analysed the results of several versions of the scales and concluded that the Ohio State scales cannot be considered sufficiently valid to warrant their continued uncritical usage in leadership research. They go on to test evidence on other forms of leadership instruments used in research primarily in the USA. These included the Least-Preferred Co-worker instrument utilised by the Contingency Theory of Leadership, the University of Michigan four-factor leadership scales. For each of the instruments they concluded that they were not sufficiently reliable or valid to warrant their continued uncritical usage in leadership research. They uncovered more than 'ten dozen leadership scales which were used during the 1960-76 period' (p.19). They further noted that few of these were used more than once and only 3% were employed more than a few times. Rush, Thomas, and Lord

(1977) were concerned about the use of questionnaires that were for subordinates to provide descriptions of leader behaviour as they thought they might be biased:

It seems unreasonable to assume that raters perceive and remember all the leader behaviour displayed in a given situation and then are able to accurately access this information at a later time when filling out a behavioural questionnaire. What is more likely is that raters rely heavily on stereotypes and implicit theories to reduce the amount of information processing required in perceiving and understanding the behaviour of others (p.14-15).

This method using subordinates was considered to be too threatening in the work with principals and would provide a yardstick against which a principal's own perceived qualities might be compared or judged rather than a clarification of the qualities of effective leaders.

The method had to be principal focused and principal controlled to encourage them to participate. But, principals are to some extent subordinate to governors. The FEFC (1994) offered a guide to governors in which the principal's role is to have the necessary executive authority to manage the college, whilst recognising that this authority must be founded in the support of the chairman and more widely the governing body. A second part of the research is therefore to consider the leader attributes that governors looked for in their principals/CEOs. The method selected for this was to analyse the job related information supplied by governors when they were seeking a new principal/CEO. It was felt that the number of new principal posts being offered would provide a statistically valid sample. This would enable the researcher to make a comparison between the attributes of a leader expressed by governors and that expressed by the leaders themselves.

As the research is on principals in the UK it is felt that, while using the experience of the USA researchers it should be set in a UK context. Thus direct reference is made to the several researchers who have carried out studies on CEOs in the UK and have identified the key characteristics of such post holders in organisations. The most significant responsibility for them is seen as that of leadership and researchers have attempted to define such leadership by identifying the behavioural qualities of leadership. Perhaps as a result of the mid-80s concern with competence, individual industries began to analyse the posts in their organisation in competence terms. The Institute for International Research (1990) presented a series of papers from a number of industries among them, BP, ICI which used competence methods to produce training plans to support their senior managers in achieving the competencies they were going to need to take their industries into the next millennium. Kakabadse (1990) presented some findings from research he carried out with CEO from major companies that were recognised as being successful by their peers in the UK, USA and Japan. He noted that,

..we concentrated on the way in which the views of leadership as a characteristic of the individual manager has changed; from theories that leadership is an inherent personal quality, to recent theories which indicate that, to be an effective leader, a manager requires primarily to develop two basic skills: those of diagnosing situations, and those of varying his leadership and interpersonal styles to match the requirements of those situations (p.413).

Kakabadse's methods consisted of a structured interview with each of the CEO and from the results drew up an 'attribute profile' of the leadership attributes of a successful CEO. These he organised into a series of groups which made up the conference report (Kakabadse 1990). Kakabadse determined that there were two key drives and four implementation skills. The drives were what leaders felt they were required in their role to do, viz.: shaping the future, and executive values. These two

drives in combination shaped the attitudes, behaviours and perceptions of a Chief Executive in determining what had to be done, who should be employed and how the employees would follow the executives ideas. The drive of *shaping the future* included vision and an appraisal of the future marketplace with *executive values* being made up of a number of elements that included:

external orientation which recognises external markets, customer need;

organisation orientation which recognises that a leader was concerned with the internal structure of the organisation;

interpersonal orientation which recognises the interpersonal skills and interpersonal model of working of the leader;

independence orientation identifies self versus a team minded approach to leadership;

expertise orientation where the approach of leaders is dependent upon their own professional skills;

integration orientation describes the way in which a leader works with people.

In this context Dalziel (1995), a member of the Hay Management team of consultants, has described how it uses the term leadership drive which it defines by what it calls 'three universal competencies' which are: sharpen the focus -they focus on what must be done with decisive insight; build commitment - they are good team leaders and are good at picturing the right person for the right job; drive for success - the persistent and constant desire to compete, setting themselves new goals and willing to seek positive change. Since these are then placed in a variety of cultural contexts which are not relevant to FE and thus their definitions were not used. Kakabadse's other category was fourfold implementation skills made up of a number of factors:

appropriate application of organisation structure;

communicating a coherent set of beliefs and values;

personal maturity;

interpersonal skills.

The four implementation skills were required to ensure that the organisational vision set within the values framework would be brought to fruition and they were felt to be:- the ability to identify and set up the appropriate organisation structure; the ability to communicate a coherent set of beliefs and values; ability to cope with ambiguity, contradiction and paradox; interpersonal skills. In the collection of relevant data other researchers have used questionnaires. For example Kouzes and Posner (1987) identified five factors for effective leadership that they described in terms of reasonably concrete behaviours:

Challenging the process - this means searching for the opportunities and experimenting, even taking sensible risks, to improve the organisation;

inspiring a shared vision - what leaders actually do to construct future visions and to build follower support for the vision;

enabling others to act - leaders make it possible for followers to take action by fostering collaboration and supporting followers in their personal development;

modelling the way - leaders set examples by their own behaviours. They also help followers focus on step-by-step accomplishments of large-scale goals, making those goals seem more realistic and attainable;

encouraging the heart - leaders recognise followers' contributions and find ways to celebrate their achievement.

Sashkin (1988) took some ideas from Bennis (1984) and expanded the behavioural characteristics that were thought to be common to effective leaders whom he also considered to be transformational.

Table 7 A Summary of the Categories Used in the Questionnaires of Three Groups of Researchers

Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio)	Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner)
Laissez-faire	Challenging the process
Transactional leadership	- search for opportunities
- Contingent reward	- experiment and take risks
- Management by exception	Inspiring a shared vision
- active	- envision the future
- passive	- enlist others
Transformational Leadership	Enabling others to act
- charisma	- foster collaboration
- individual consideration	- strengthen others
intellectual stimulation	Modelling the way
inspiration	-set the example
	- plan small wins
	Encourage the heart
	- recognise contributions
	- celebrate accomplishments
Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire (Sashkin)	
Leadership behaviours	
- focused leadership(clarity)	
- communicative leadership(communication)	
- trust leadership(Consistency)	
- respectful leadership(caring)	
- risk leadership(Creating opportunities)	
Leadership Characteristics	
- bottom-line leadership(Self-confidence)	
- empowered leadership(Power)	
- long term leadership(vision)	
Culture Building Leadership	
- organisational leadership	
- cultural leadership	

The table was adapted from Kouzes and Posner (1993)

The categories were clarity - of vision and explanation of the vision; communication e.g active listening and giving and receiving feedback; consistency - over time and between followers; caring - what Carl Rogers (1966) calls “unconditional positive

regard” i.e. caring about and respecting another person regardless of one’s feelings or judgements about that person’s actions; creating opportunities - providing a supportive environment in which all members of an organisation may take on new challenges with their potential risks. Sashkin (1988) also identified what he called three personal characteristics - self-confidence, power and vision. The way in which characteristics were used in research questionnaires by three groups of researchers may be seen in Table 7.

It was felt that the six groups of elements and factors as set out by Kakabadse and Dainty (1989) would form the foundation on which might be built a more FE focused source for the production of a questionnaire to be sent to the principals/CEO of the 239 general colleges of further education in England and Wales. These questions formed part one of the questionnaire in which principals were to be asked their strength of agreement or disagreement with the statements made, replies being scored on a Likert-type scale.

In the production of the questionnaire as well as drawing on his own experience the researcher also consulted others on its production. Cohen (1989, p.111) reported a number of factors to be aware of when producing a questionnaire as suggested by Hoinville and Jowell: (i) the appearance of a questionnaire is vitally important. A large questionnaire with plenty of space for questions and answers is more encouraging to respondents; (ii) clarity of wording and simplicity of design are essential. Clear instructions should guide the respondent, whereas complicated instructions and complex procedures intimidate respondents; (iii) arrange the contents of the questionnaire in such a way as to maximise co-operation;(iv) the questionnaire

does not necessarily have to be short in order to obtain a satisfactory response level. With sophisticated respondents a short questionnaire might appear to trivialise complex issues with which they are familiar.

Kline (1993) confirmed that a Likert scale i.e. which consists essentially of statements followed by 5 or 7 point rating scales which indicate the extent of a subject's agreement with the item would be appropriate to use with the questions as no unfavourable assumptions are made by the model. Oppenheim (1966) described Likert's work and suggested that Likert's primary concern was with making sure that all the items in a questionnaire would measure the same thing. He advised that more complex scoring methods had been shown to possess no advantage. He did, however, suggest that 'The scoring must be consistent e.g. favourable is always high or always low. It does not matter what we decide, it must be consistent' (p.134). Kline (1993) further stated that it was generally preferable to have an odd number of steps because this allows a neutral or uncertain category. It was considered that space should be identified to encourage principals to add comments in order to expand on their views of leader attributes.

Part two of the questionnaire was to be a section in which principals were to be asked to identify the importance they placed on the statement. The third part was a section in which principals were asked to provide demographic data to be used in the statistical analysis

A pilot version was produced and tested by five principals and they reviewed it for language, relevance, clarity of understanding of the question and clarity of

presentation. The questionnaire was two-tailed in identifying not only the level of agreement of the questions but also the level of importance a principal placed on the particular question; this in part might overcome the simple compliance in 'ticking boxes'. None of the reviewers thought the level of importance was helpful and two suggested a priority order of each question within its table might provide the rigour of answers sought. This section of the completed questionnaire remained problematical and was not included in the final analysis. From comments received from those completing the questionnaire they found it unhelpful and not clear what was to be done and thus guessed rather than thoughtfully completing that section which suggested that the section would not provide valid data.

A final questionnaire was made up of three sections: section one was a group of tables containing the questions and the level of agreement/disagreement; section two consisted of numbered boxes for priority; section three was demographic. This questionnaire was sent to named principals in 239 general colleges of FE. 111 questionnaires were returned and six principals sent apologies for not returning the questionnaires i.e. a return rate of 44.6%. In a postal survey of CEO by Larwood et al (1995) they considered they had a 'strong rate of response' (p.762) with a response of 34%.

Chapter Four

Research results: analysis of further education leadership

The statements were converted to a Likert scale and analysed using a statistical survey instrument. A commercial software package 'SNAP' provided an initial analysis and a second more detailed analysis drew on SPSS software.

Results

The results are in three parts

- (1) An analysis of data from a questionnaire of the attributes of principals of colleges
- (2) A summary of data from the job applications from principals drawn up by college corporations
- (3) A comparison between (1) and (2)

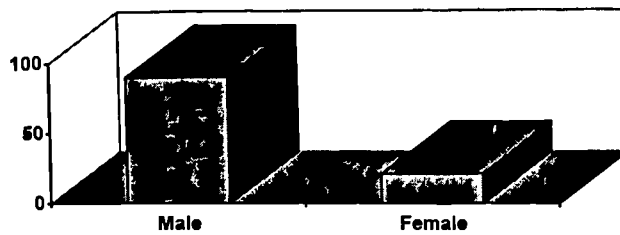
Part 1

- (i) The demographic data Tables summarising the personal profile of principals taking part in the survey

Gender

Male	Female
90	21

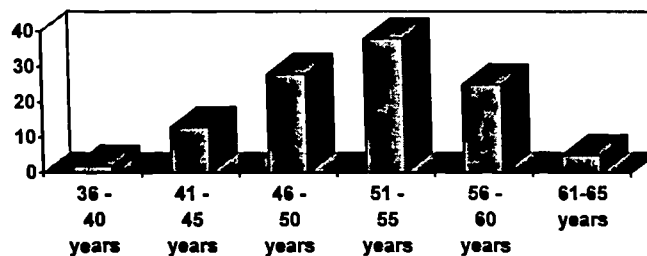
Gender



Age

36 - 40 years	41 - 45 years	46 - 50 years	51 - 55 years	56 - 60 years	61-65 years
2	13	28	38	25	5

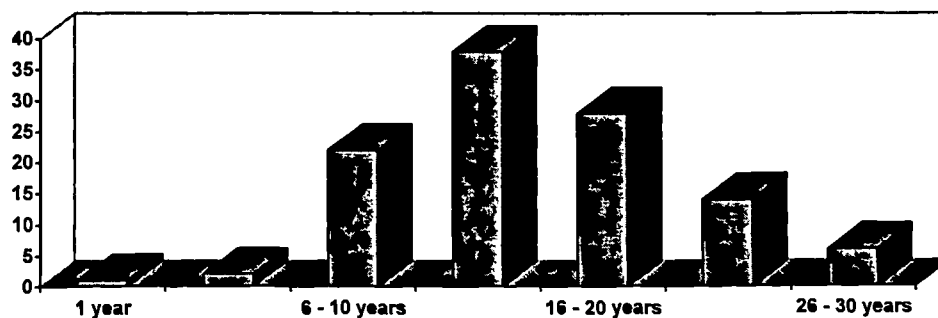
Age



Years experience in further education management

1 year	2 - 5 years	6 - 10 years	11 - 15 years	16 - 20 years	21 - 25 years	26 - 30 years
1	2	22	38	28	14	6

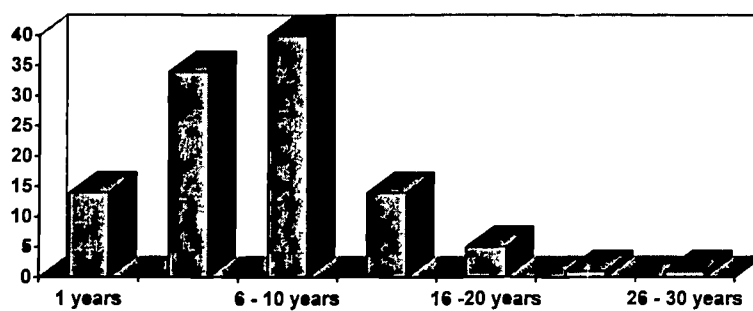
Years experience in FE



Years experience as a principal

1 years	2 - 5 years	6 - 10 years	11 - 15 years	16 -20 years	21 - 25 years	26 - 30 years
14	34	40	14	5	1	1

Years experience as a principal

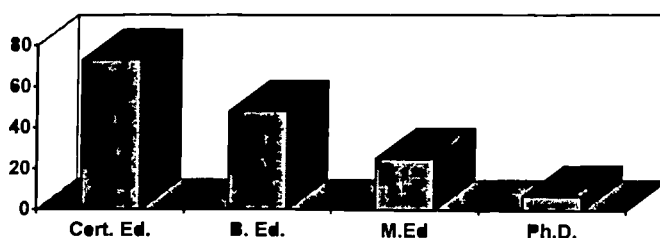


Qualifications:-

In education

Cert. Ed.	B. Ed.	M.Ed	Ph.D.
73	48	25	7

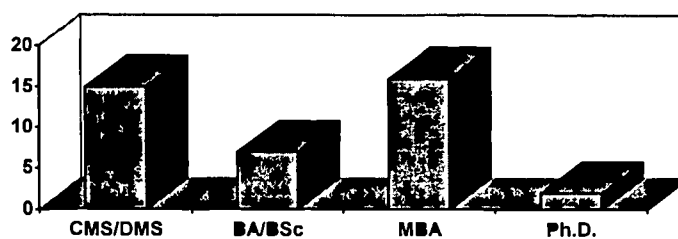
Qualifications in education



In management

CMS/DMS	BA/BSc	MBA	Ph.D.
15	7	16	2

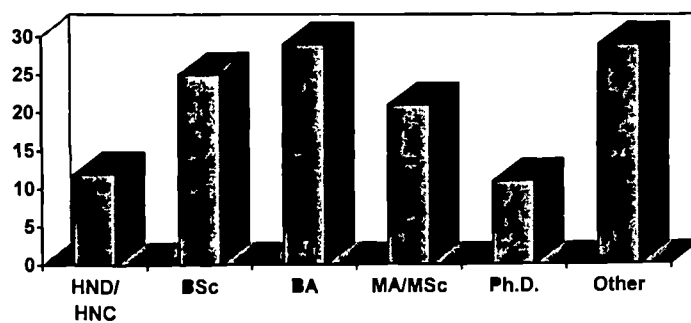
Qualifications in management



In other areas

HND/HNC	BSc	BA	MA/MSc	Ph.D.	Other
12	25	29	21	11	29

Other qualifications



Part 2

The questions (Attributes) listed in the order of the questionnaire:

A principal should:

1. Clearly set out strategies for the management of change
2. Show an anticipation of future change
3. Paint a clear picture of future change
4. Have a willingness to change direction in response to market need
5. Create systems that will recognise future challenges and opportunities
6. Ensure the organisation of the college will meet future challenges
7. Build up an information network to recognise what the future may hold
8. Define clearly the management structure of the college
9. Have clear recognisable views on how the college should be managed
10. Have obvious views on how to work with colleagues
11. Be an active team player
12. Be seen as a hard-working and dynamic individual
13. Show an understanding of the external working environment of the college
14. Build a well organised administration
15. Seek an organisation that is responsive to customer need
16. Ensure that the role of subordinates are clearly defined
17. Employ staff who have a high level of interpersonal skills
18. Encourage creative skills in all staff
19. Take responsibility for the errors of colleagues
20. Rely on a team approach to management
21. Have professional, subject discipline or technical expertise
22. See the importance of using this personal expertise within their overall management strategy
23. Have a high level of presentation skills
24. Encourage response to needs as they arise
25. Regularly review the college structure
26. Use the structure as the vehicle for pursuing policies
27. Recognise the strength and weaknesses of the college
28. Enjoy working with and supporting colleagues
29. Work with rather than through colleagues
30. Enable individuals to take ownership of the challenges facing them
31. Have considerable day to day contact with staff
32. Be comfortable managing change
33. Have the ability to negotiate and renegotiate to reach agreement
34. Accept friction as a necessary attribute of change
35. Be able to distance oneself from day to day issues
36. Seek and receive regular feedback from colleagues
37. Value the feedback from colleagues
38. Be able to influence people to their own point of view.

The data i.e. each principal's attribute list has been summarised in the following tables with all of the lists in the order of the sum of the mean and standard deviations of the

Likert score for each question i.e. each attribute from the questionnaire. The tables are made up of several categories of data made up from the sum of all candidate results of the questionnaire i.e. drawn from the total 111 answers to the questionnaire. The range of categories is made up from the information provided in the personal profiles in the questionnaire. For example, attribute(15) *seek an organisation that is responsive to customer need*, is the number one priority for both male and female principals, whereas attribute(9) *have clearly recognisable views on how the college should be managed*, is the third priority for male principals and the sixth priority for female principals.

Table A

The Attributes in Priority Order by Male and Female Principals

The summary of attributes may be listed in priority order as presented by the different personal profiles of principals. The following are the attributes in priority order as identified by women and men.

Principal's attributes of leadership as prioritised by men principals. The highlighted attributes are those that have clearly different priorities between male and female principals.

The order of attributes as a result of the replies from men principals may be seen to be different in the order of attributes to women principals. Men principals place an importance on the *management of change*; their vision as *seek an organisation that is responsive to customer need*; and the *internal organisation of the college*. They also consider the *acceptance and perhaps the use of feedback* to be important to their structural approach.

Table A
The Attributes in Priority Order by Male and Female Principals

Attribute in number order	Attribute in priority order male principals	Attribute in priority order female principals
1	15	15
2	27	27
3	9	30
4	6	5
5	1	6
6	8	9
7	37	1
8	30	12
9	32	4
10	36	13
11	20	7
12	4	2
13	13	37
14	2	18
15	17	36
16	11	28
17	5	32
18	28	14
19	12	23
20	29	20
21	23	17
22	18	8
23	14	25
24	16	16
25	33	38
26	10	26
27	7	10
28	24	11
29	3	24
30	25	3
31	35	22
32	34	21
33	38	33
34	26	34
35	31	35
36	19	29
37	22	31
38	21	19

Women principals place other attributes high on their list and these include those that are to do with identifying a vision for the future *create systems that will recognise*

future challenges and *build up an information network to recognise what the future may hold* and are able to look outwards, *external to the organisation*. They also place importance on the attributes of *be seen as a hard working and dynamic individual* and those of *enabling individuals to take ownership of the challenges facing them*. The attributes in the top half of the table are clustered around those of the vision of the leader; change management; and people focused. They place the attribute of *networking* high whilst placing those attributes related to *working with and within teams* low down in priority. They also place less emphasis on the definition of management structure and perhaps show the need to have attributes that promote a flexible organisation. Although low in the list of priorities the attribute of *influencing people to their own point of view* is not as low down the list as it is for men. Men principals have this in their bottom 6 priorities. They both have sharing the vision i.e. *paint a clear picture of future change* low in their priority.

Table B

The Attributes in Priority Order by the Number of Years a Principal

If the attributes are categorised according to the ages of principals there are not the discrepancies the researcher might have expected for example between a new principal and one who has been a principal for 15 years. It is possible, however, to observe differences in their view of importance in attributes. Principals in their first year as principal have the *ability to provide a structure* high on their list along with

rely on a team approach to management and unlike others place the *use of the structure in pursuing policies* within the top 15 priorities all other principals place it in the bottom 10 of their choice of attribute. Conversely, *the encouragement of creativity in staff* is not within their top half of priorities; *painting a clear picture of change* is just within their top half of priorities. Only just in the bottom 15 is *to be able to distance oneself from day to day issues*, whereas for all other groups it is clearly in the bottom 10. Yet in their bottom 10 are *be seen as a hard-working and dynamic individual* and *encourage creative skills in staff*.

Principals who have been in post for 2 to 5 years identify strongly with the attributes *showing an understanding of the external environment* and *having considerable day to day contact with staff*. *To paint a clear picture of the future* falls just within the top half of the list of attributes. *Clearly setting out strategies for the management of change* and *having obvious views on how to work with colleagues* are in the bottom 10 of attributes selected by them.

In common with principals with 2-5 year experience principals with 11-15 years experience put the attribute for *'clearly setting out strategies for the management of change* low down in their priorities where almost all other groups have it in their top10.

Table B

The Attributes in Priority Order the Number of Years a Principal

Attribute in number order	Attributes in priority order by principals with 1 yrs. experience as principal	Attribute order of principals with 2-5y experience as principal	Attribute order of principals with 6-10y experience as principal	Attribute order of principals with 11-15y experience as principal
1	6	15	15	9
2	8	32	9	15
3	9	27	6	27
4	15	13	36	6
5	1	30	1	5
6	30	31	37	8
7	27	37	30	36
8	20	9	27	4
9	5	6	2	32
10	4	5	8	37
11	32	36	20	20
12	17	2	4	23
13	26	4	18	30
14	11	17	32	29
15	13	8	28	11
16	37	20	11	12
17	28	12	23	1
18	36	3	14	2
19	2	18	13	17
20	10	28	16	14
21	16	33	5	10
22	3	29	7	13
23	23	7	17	28
24	35	11	10	18
25	7	14	12	33
26	14	16	24	25
27	33	23	29	24
28	29	38	33	7
29	12	1	38	34
30	18	24	35	35
31	25	25	25	16
32	24	10	3	31
33	38	26	34	26
34	22	34	31	21
35	34	35	26	3
36	31	22	21	22
37	21	19	19	38
38	19	21	22	19

Table C

Attributes in Priority Order According to the Years of Experience as a Manager in Further Education

Attributes in number order	Attributes in priority order for principals with 6-10y as FE manager	Attributes in priority order for principals with 11-15y as FE manager	Attributes in priority order for principals with 16-20y as FE manager	Attributes in priority order for principals with 21-25y as FE manager
1	15	15	32	6
2	8	27	15	8
3	30	1	9	9
4	27	30	1	15
5	6	37	6	4
6	1	13	8	11
7	5	9	27	27
8	9	36	2	36
9	37	6	36	37
10	12	4	20	13
11	4	2	37	17
12	32	32	30	20
13	3	5	23	30
14	7	28	28	16
15	2	14	10	1
16	36	18	12	5
17	17	17	18	23
18	20	20	21	10
19	11	16	11	18
20	10	8	14	32
21	33	12	29	28
22	28	23	16	29
23	18	11	17	12
24	23	33	24	14
25	29	7	33	26
26	21	3	4	25
27	12	29	13	2
28	16	38	7	7
29	24	25	19	24
30	14	24	5	34
31	31	10	25	35
32	26	35	26	33
33	25	34	35	22
34	38	31	34	21
35	34	22	31	38
36	35	26	38	3
37	22	19	3	31
38	19	21	22	19

Drawing on the years of experience as an FE manager too provides some major variants in the ordering of attributes. Principals with 6-10 years as FE managers have put the attribute of *'painting a clear picture of future change'* within the top 15 as is *Build up a future network to recognise what the future may hold* and one of only two Principal groups to place them so importantly. They also have attribute *create systems that will recognise future challenges* in their top 10.

Principals with 11-15 years as FE managers have broadly similar views to those with less experience with the exception of the attribute of *'showing an understanding of the external working environment of the college'* which they place within the top 6 of attributes. In contrast they place their having to *'have obvious views on how to work with colleagues'* in the bottom 10 attributes. They also place the ability to *'define clearly the management structure of the college'* in the bottom half of attributes.

16-20 years as a FE manager appears to show some different views of importance by placing the attributes of *'having a willingness to change direction in response to market need'* and *'show an understanding of the external working environment of the college'*, in the bottom 15. Such principals also place *have obvious views on how to work with colleagues* in their top 15 as well as *rely on a team approach to management*. They do not feel so strongly about *create systems that will recognise future challenges* which is in their bottom 10, the only principal group to so place them.

The principals with the most experience in FE i.e. those with 21-25 years as FE managers have attributes that they consider more important than other principal groups as well as those they consider to be less important. *Being an active team player* and *employ staff who have a high level of interpersonal skills* are attributes they put within the top 10 of their priorities. Whereas *being comfortable managing change* falls to the bottom half of their list. They have two other attributes, *clearly set out strategies for the management of change* and *create systems that will recognise future challenges and opportunities* which fall just within the middle of the table whereas most other groups place these in the top 10 of the table. They are the only group that places *seek an organisation that is responsive to customer need* out of the top 10.

Table D

The Attribute Order from Principals According to their Qualifications

When principals are grouped according to their qualifications once again the picture is varied. There appear to be greater fluctuations in the priorities in this group of principals. Those with HNC/HND qualifications, place *'encourage creative skills in staff'* within the bottom 5 of attributes, the only group to place it so low. In contrast, *'Show an anticipation of future change'* is within the top 10 of attributes, one of only three groups that placed it in such a high position in the table. *Ensure that the role of subordinates are clearly defined* is also in the top 10, the only group to put it so high. They are also the only group to place *take responsibility for the errors of colleagues* out of the bottom 10.

Table D (a)

The Attribute Order from Principals According to their Qualifications

Attributes in number order	Attributes in priority order for principals with an HNC/HND qual.	Attributes in priority order for principals with a BA qual.	Attributes in priority order for principals with a BSc qual.
1	1	9	15
2	6	15	27
3	8	6	4
4	15	27	6
5	9	1	30
6	32	8	37
7	37	30	36
8	2	32	14
9	4	13	9
10	16	37	13
11	27	5	1
12	30	20	5
13	10	2	18
14	17	17	28
15	13	11	32
16	28	33	2
17	5	12	16
18	33	23	17
19	36	28	20
20	3	18	8
21	20	4	12
22	19	29	7
23	11	24	23
24	23	10	29
25	12	7	11
26	26	16	33
27	24	14	24
28	22	26	38
29	14	25	34
30	7	3	25
31	35	38	35
32	29	34	10
33	38	36	26
34	18	35	3
35	25	31	31
36	21	22	21
37	34	19	19
38	31	21	22

Principals that have a BA qualification consider that '*seeking and receiving feedback from colleagues*' is a low priority and place it in the last 6 of attributes. They also

state that *have a willingness to change direction in response to market need* should be in the bottom half of attributes. At odds with this it would appear are those principals with a BSc who *place have a willingness to change direction in response to market need* in the top 3 attributes whereas they put *define clearly the management structure of the college* almost at the bottom half of the table. They put *have obvious views on how to work with colleagues* into the bottom 10 of attributes. *Build a well organised administration* is in the top 10, the only group to place it so high.

Those who have a Masters Degree place *have obvious views on how to work with colleagues* in the first 5. However, *define clearly the management structure of the college* is in the bottom half of the table, almost the lowest for any group. They do give importance to *employ staff with high interpersonal skills* and *rely on a team approach to management* by having them in their top 10.

Principals with management qualifications at CMS/DMS or Masters Degree do not agree on all elements of their list and there are clear differences between those with a Masters Degree who place *have a willingness to change direction in response to market need* in the top 3 and those with CMS/DMS place it in the bottom half of the table. They are at odds in placing *paint a clear picture of future change* which those with a Masters in management place in the top 10 and those with a CMS/DMS place in the bottom 10.

Principals with a PhD place the attribute *encourage creative skills in all staff* in the top 5 the highest placement of any group and *clearly set strategies for the management of change* only just in the top half of the table the lowest placement of

any group. They are one of only two groups to place , *ensure that the role of subordinates are clearly defined* in the top 15.

Table D (b)
The Attribute Order from Principals According to their Qualifications

Attributes in number order	Attributes in priority order for principals with Masters Degree qual.	Attributes in priority order for principals with a CMS/ DMS qual.	Attributes in priority order for principals with a Masters in manage. qual.	Attributes in priority order for principals with a PhD qual.	Attributes in priority order for principals with other qual.
1	15	1	1	8	15
2	27	9	15	6	6
3	1	15	4	15	9
4	37	6	6	32	8
5	10	30	9	18	27
6	30	8	32	27	30
7	9	32	8	37	1
8	17	37	27	4	37
9	6	13	30	5	5
10	20	36	3	9	4
11	32	10	5	30	36
12	36	5	7	16	13
13	14	27	37	11	32
14	5	14	13	29	2
15	28	12	2	20	18
16	2	18	36	28	11
17	18	2	17	36	14
18	12	7	23	1	16
19	4	23	20	14	17
20	13	17	18	2	20
21	7	33	10	23	23
22	29	4	16	12	28
23	21	11	11	33	10
24	11	20	38	17	12
25	8	29	28	7	7
26	33	26	24	13	3
27	16	28	29	10	24
28	38	31	12	24	29
29	23	16	14	35	25
30	24	25	26	19	35
31	35	22	33	38	38
32	3	38	25	34	33
33	31	3	35	25	34
34	34	19	34	31	21
35	26	24	22	21	26
36	25	34	19	3	22
37	19	21	21	26	31
38	22	35	31	22	19

Table E

Attribute Order According to The Age Category of Principals

Attributes in number order	Attributes in priority order for principals 41-45y	Attributes in priority order for principals 46-50y	Attributes in priority order for principals 51-55y	Attributes in priority order for principals 56-60y
1	15	15	15	15
2	1	27	1	41
3	32	1	30	9
4	6	13	9	27
5	8	9	6	6
6	27	6	27	36
7	30	8	20	37
8	2	30	32	8
9	9	4	37	32
10	13	37	36	23
11	28	5	2	11
12	33	36	13	18
13	36	32	28	30
14	37	2	17	12
15	18	18	8	14
16	4	11	4	17
17	5	25	5	10
18	17	7	14	28
19	20	20	7	1
20	23	33	11	29
21	11	23	18	5
22	12	3	12	20
23	10	17	10	2
24	16	16	16	24
25	24	12	23	16
26	38	14	29	21
27	7	28	3	13
28	29	29	26	33
29	22	38	35	7
30	35	10	33	34
31	14	24	34	31
32	3	34	24	25
33	25	35	25	26
34	26	19	38	38
35	31	26	31	3
36	21	31	22	22
37	34	22	21	35
38	19	21	19	19

The age of principals too appears to make a difference in the ordering of attributes with some disagreement between them. Those aged 41-45 have *show an anticipation of future change* within the top 10 whereas those aged 56-60 have it in the bottom half

The age of principals too appears to make a difference in the ordering of attributes with some disagreement between them. Those aged 41-45 have *show an anticipation of future change* within the top 10 whereas those aged 56-60 have it in the bottom half of their list. Younger principals also have *have the ability to negotiate and renegotiate to reach agreement* in their top 15 whereas those 51-55 years have it in their bottom 10. This 51-55 age group have *rely on a team approach to management* in their top 7, the highest priority of any group. The 56-60 year olds place *'have a willingness to change direction in response to market need'* in their top 2 whereas two of the other groups i.e. 41-45 year olds and 51-55 year olds place it just out of the top 15.

46-50 year old principals place *regular review of the college structure* within the top half of the table and all others have it in the bottom 10. 56-60 year olds have *clearly set out strategies for the management of change* in the bottom half of the table but all others have it in their top 3. They considered *have a high level of presentation skills* to be important enough to be in the top 10 and were the only group to do so. This same group also contrasts the placing of *show an understanding of the external working environment of the college* in the bottom 12 attributes, with the 46-50 year olds placing it in the top 4. The 41-45 year olds place *see the importance of using this personal expertise within their overall management strategy* almost out of the bottom 10; the other groups place it firmly in the bottom three. *Enjoying working with and supporting colleagues* was not an attribute valued highly by 46-50 year old principals, placing it in the bottom 11, the lowest place of any group.

Attributes as Presented by College Corporations in the Application Details of Vacant Principal Posts

The application details from the application packs or advertisements from forty colleges were analysed and a table of attributes was drawn up. A list of eighty three different attributes or 'attribute description' was collected from the advertisements and used to form one axis of a matrix of responses from the colleges. From this data the description of the attributes were placed under attribute headings in order to summarise those that were identified by more than five colleges. These descriptions are in the following list. The terminology used by these applications was selected to provide a means of collating a number of similar statements or definitions under one heading.

The statement or definition summaries is as follows and is placed in order of popularity i.e. the attribute that was referred to by most of the boards is the top ranking attribute and the one referred to the least is the lowest ranking attribute :-

Attributes as Presented by College Corporations in the Application Details of Vacant Principal Posts

1. Communication
2. Ability to provide strategic vision
3. Knowledge of issues in Further Education
4. Team leadership and working with a team
5. Knowledge and understanding of quality issues
6. Commitment to and an understanding of equal opportunities
7. Able to work under pressure
8. Ability to gain the confidence of the college community and the commitment of staff
9. Ability to motivate
10. Public relation skills and the ability to develop external relations
11. Interpersonal skills to promote positive participation in decision-making, team work and diligence
12. Curriculum development expertise
13. Flexible and responsive approach to situations
14. Expertise in managing an organisation through change
15. Tenacity to see their vision through

16. Knowledge and understanding of personnel practice and industrial relations
17. An imaginative approach to learning and leadership
18. First class leadership qualities
19. Ability to think creatively at strategic level
20. Ability to make decisions and prioritise tasks
21. Will work through networking
22. Ability to operate efficiently and energetically in a change environment
23. Ability to provide corporate leadership
24. Have negotiation skills

It is possible to interpret these statements made by the corporations into the attributes as proposed in the questionnaires. In this way direct comparisons of those attributes of principals that are valued by corporations may be made with those valued by existing principals. Some judgements will have to be made in the interpretation of statements in order to 'best fit' the attributes.

Converting the corporation summaries of attributes to those in the questionnaire gives the following:-

Using the comparative/summative approach, summarised in the above table, priorities may be identified. Communication as interpreted by *having a high level of presentation skills* and *receiving (and valuing) regular feedback from colleagues* are 'middle order' priorities in most principal groups. *Be seen as hard-working and dynamic* too is a higher order priority than with principals as is *being an active team player*. *Be able to influence people to their own point of view* is for the first time in the top ten of attributes as is *paint a clear picture of future change*.

Table E Comparison of the Attributes Identified by College Corporations with those of the Principals

Attribute identified by Corporation in priority order	Attribute(s) from the 'principal's questionnaire' that closely match those described by the corporation
1. Communication	23 Have a high level of presentation skills and 36 seek and receive regular feedback from colleagues
2. Ability to provide strategic vision	3 Paint a clear picture of future change
3. Knowledge of issues in Further Education	27 Recognise the strengths and weaknesses of the college
4. Team leadership and working with a team	11 Be an active team player
5. Knowledge and understanding of quality issues	15 Seek an organisation that is responsive to customer need
6. Commitment to and an understanding of equal opportunities	10 Have obvious views on how to work with colleagues
7. Able to work under pressure	34 Accept friction as a necessary attribute of change and, 12 be seen as hard-working and dynamic individual
8. Ability to gain the confidence of the college community and the commitment of staff	38 Be able to influence people to their own point of view
9. Ability to motivate	30 Enable individuals to take ownership of the challenges facing them
10. Public relation skills and the ability to develop external relations	13 Show an understanding of the external working environment of the college
11. Interpersonal skills to promote positive participation in decision-making, team work and diligence	20 Rely on a team approach to management 29 Work with rather than through colleagues
12. Curriculum development expertise	22 Have professional, subject discipline or technical expertise
13. Flexible and responsive approach to situations	4 Have a willingness to change direction in response to market need
14. Expertise in managing an organisation through change	6 Ensure the organisation of the college will meet future challenges
15. Tenacity to see their vision through	6 Ensure the organisation of the college will meet future challenges and 38 be able to influence people to their own point of view
16. Knowledge and understanding of personnel practice and industrial relations	31 Have considerable day to day contact with staff and enjoy working with and supporting colleagues
17. An imaginative approach to learning and leadership	5 Create systems that will recognise future challenges and opportunities and 18 encourage creative skills in staff
18. First class leadership qualities	All attributes contribute to this.
19. Ability to think creatively at strategic level	2 Show an anticipation of future change
20. Ability to make decisions and prioritise tasks	9 Have clear and recognisable views on how the college should be managed
21. Will work through networking	7 Build up an information network to recognise what the future may hold
22. Ability to operate efficiently and energetically in a change environment	32 Be comfortable managing change
23. Ability to provide corporate leadership	1 Clearly set out strategies for the management of change
24. Have negotiation skills	33 Have the ability to negotiate and renegotiate to reach agreements

Chapter Five

Discussion of results

From the results in the previous chapter, the attributes have been grouped according to the personal profile categories of the principals: these are gender, years as a principal, years of management in further education, qualifications and age. The attributes as identified by corporation members (Governors) are also included.

The influence of gender

From figures in 1985 the percentage of women principals was very low i.e. 5.6% and thus the return of 11% for women principals reflects a slightly higher representation of the whole number of principals in England and Wales at that time. However, the growth in the last few years has increased dramatically in comparison to previous years. Stott and Lawson (1997) note that, 'In 1990, there were 13 female principals...spring of 1996 there were 68 and by Autumn term 1997, 81 women were principals of further education colleges' (p.9). The judgement is made that the data from the female principals was taken from a representative group as was that for male principals.

Some of those attributes concerned with vision and skills for its implementation are higher up the order for women than for men principals. In particular *build up an information network to recognise what the future may hold, anticipating future change* and *creating systems that will recognise future challenges* are much higher up

in the list for women than for men and these three attributes are linked. They all represent a data collection to enable them to confirm their vision and determine future changes. Such data collection is recognised as being important by other principals.

Schmidt (1987, p36) found that

Environmental scanning is an activity familiar to continuing education leaders. Client needs are the backbone of programme planning and marketing and both require an understanding of the forces at work outside the institution.

Schmidt continues to emphasise the importance of environmental scanning and further describes its purpose as ‘..to discover and describe opportunities that an institution may choose to exploit. The process will also reveal environmental constraints that the institution may have to circumvent’ (p.37). Perhaps this identifies a more futuristic outlook of women principals or a more open approach to *identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the institution* through benchmarking and thus allowing all staff to recognise their current and potential future progress. It may also indicate a less autocratic leadership style as it signals an openness to learn.

In placing so high on their list the attributes of *creating systems that will recognise future challenges and opportunities*, women principals have a number of researchers agreeing with them in stressing this aspect of leadership. Guthrie (1991, p 149) stresses

...the continual need on the part of a contemporary educational leader to appraise conditions both external and internal to an organisation, assess the organisation’s mission relative to environmental changes, and consistently assess existing organisational procedures.

Women show a realisation that an understanding and anticipation of factors that may affect the college are important for successful leadership. But they have to beware they do not spend too much time out of the college; Tolley (1981) pointed out the

problems of a principal who spends too much time considering the external environment, calling it the 'Mantle of the Great Syndrome' (p.390). He described this as '...the leader who gets caught up in national committees and becomes a chairman of this, that or the other...it provides a cordon sanitaire from all the problems of the college' (p.390). However, the attribute that most straightforwardly deals with vision is, *paint a clear picture of future change* and this is a low priority in both the lists for men and women. This low priority would concur with the British reserve about story-telling to colleagues as outlined in Chapter Three.

Women principals in the survey attach more importance than men to the idea of *being seen as hard-working and dynamic*. This is perhaps because as women they have had to work exceptionally hard for their present post and possibly feel that they have to work harder than men for any promoted post. Shakeshaft (1989, p 329) tells us that '...women administrators have to work harder to get male teachers to "hear" them.' Rosener (1990,p14) too found that hard work was an important attribute of women leaders and in her research said that she had found that women leaders ascribe their power to personal characteristics like '...interpersonal skills, hard work , or personal contacts rather than to organisational stature.' These attributes are confirmed in a report from Further Education Development Agency (FEDA, 1997) based on a survey of women principals in FE. Some 12 of them were questioned on their management style and all described themselves as, 'open or approachable or both.' They also described their styles as 'participative and consultative', or say they are interested in people, caring or being fair. Other qualities mentioned are vision, enthusiasm, drive, hard work and ability. Whilst they were also asked questions about their personal qualities that enabled them to become principals they were not

asked about their views on leadership, unless of course 'management style' is a proxy for leadership.

This FEDA Report charted the influences on the careers of women principals and in its summary of findings identified:

- common core values include a belief in people, teams, honesty and openness;
- women principals are good at self management, but typically drive themselves too hard;
- they are motivated by new challenging work and self-development, rather than by promotion status;
- all acknowledge that being a principal in FE is a huge, demanding role.

Women principals are concerned with their vision of the future of the college. Despite this, they do not consider *setting up a clear management structure* as an important attribute to help set up the organisation model to achieve their vision. And yet they rate more importantly than men principals the idea that *structure is a useful vehicle for achieving their goals*. Men feel it is important to *define a clear management structure* and a *clear view on how the college should be managed* more highly on their list. This may mean they prefer a more planned and less creative approach to achieving their vision. Or it could mean that they feel they are giving away their power. Two of the principals in the survey felt the need to state:

'Painting a clear picture of future change would be dangerous if proved wrong, so scenario planning is more sensible/effective.' This came from a female principal with 6 years' experience.

‘You can’t paint a picture very far ahead - the essence is to be prepared for the unexpected.’ This came from a female principal with 6 years experience.

Vision is what the staff and perhaps the corporation will expect from their principal. It is not within the scope of this study to determine which approach to achieving the vision is likely to be the most successful. But it is clear that women principals do suggest by position of the attributes in the list that vision is an important aspect of leadership. In research work on school leadership Holmes (1993, p.36) states ‘ Vision is...non-negotiable. It is fundamental to their success as leaders and to the success of their school.’ The principals of colleges should not only identify and create a vision but must also share it and help colleagues work towards it. Rutherford (1985, p.32), reporting on the results of effective schools research, noted ‘When principals had visions for the future of their schools, the teachers described these schools as good places for students and teachers.’ Whilst colleges are not schools they do have similar structures and may to some extent have similar missions. Tichy and Charan (1990, p.4) confirm ‘Good leaders create a vision, articulate the vision, passionately own the vision and relentlessly drive it to completion.’ Khaleelee and Woolf (1996) also subscribe to the importance of vision and add a dash of realism to its use,

Leading involves being able to conceptualise a vision, having the authority, energy and clarity to communicate the vision and the resilience to sustain the work programme necessary to bring the vision to reality (p.5).

In the ever-changing world of further education it would seem important that principals should recognise such change within their vision. This change may be seen in the ability of leaders to adapt to new ideas and new demands and is perhaps best reflected in the approach of colleges to the services they provide. Both men and

women principals show that a *responsiveness to customers and their needs* is a most important attribute for leadership. In placing the vision and the skills to respond to change high on the list they conform to Handy's (1995) views of the development of leadership of new organisations - and since incorporation all colleges have become new organisations. Such new organisations, 'would require...us to learn new ways and new habits, to live with more uncertainty but more trust, less control but more creativity' (p105). These characteristics seem to be those which the limited research on women leaders suggest they possess and are considered to be 'feminine traits' in leadership.

Rosener (1990, p124) confirms this quality in women leaders. 'While men have had to appear to be competitive, strong, tough, decisive and in control, women have allowed themselves to be co-operative, emotional, supportive and vulnerable.' Rosener went on to describe what she thought was an interactive leadership style that would build upon the strengths of feminine characteristics and one which 'encourages participation, shares power and information, sees information as a two-way process, enhances self-worth of others, energises others through her own enthusiasm for the job.' The attributes in the top half of the list of attributes produced by women does in part meet the image that Rosener paints. Participation and creativity are there, as is hard work and dynamism, empowerment and self-worth. But in men principals they have *relying on a team approach* and *work with rather than through individuals* much higher in their list which strongly suggests a sharing of information and a caring approach apparently at odds with Rosener's findings.

From the survey a male principal of 6 years experience felt strongly enough to write, 'In practice I think the critical team to get right is the Senior Management Team; easier said than done in my personal experience to date.' This would indicate the importance of the attribute but also the difficulty in putting it into leadership practice.

Gibson,s (1995) investigation of women leaders in several countries reported on the work of Eagly (1987) who was concerned with gender differences in social behaviour in women leaders. She suggested that gender differences could be considered in two types of qualities: communal and agentic. The communal quality is typified by a concern with the welfare of other people. Communal qualities include 'nurturance, affection, ability to devote self to others, eagerness to soothe hurt feelings, helpfulness, sympathy, awareness of the feeling of others, and emotional expressiveness' (p.256). Various studies have demonstrated that, in general, females are more often characterised by communal qualities.

According to Eagly (1987), the agentic dimension of behaviour may be seen as an assertive goal directed, and controlling tendency. Agentic qualities include 'aggressiveness, ambition, dominance, independence, self-reliance, self-sufficiency, directness, and decisiveness' (p.256). Gibson confirms that a number of research reviews have shown, in general, males are more often characterised by agentic qualities. Whilst these qualities are not exclusive to one gender or another it has been found that such qualities are predominantly associated with one gender. Male development of agentic qualities may result in a tendency for males to emphasise certain leadership behaviours and styles more so than others. This is also true in the case of female development of communal qualities. In Gibson's study she further

found that the specific dimensions that varied most across genders were goal setting and interaction facilitation, with males placing greater emphasis on goal setting, and females placing greater emphasis on interaction facilitation. The questions from the principals' study do not readily allow themselves to be compared with these comments but it does appear that women do endeavour to offer opportunities for staff to work together and to take responsibility e.g. *enabling individuals to take ownership of the challenges facing them* is in the top three of attributes.

There are others too, however, who identify differences between women's leadership styles and those of men. Ozga (1993) quotes Pitner's study of the leadership styles in women and notes that in carrying out 'tasks' women emphasise cohesiveness. They are much less individualistic and spend time fostering an integrative culture and climate. In the current study the list of attributes that are integration oriented include *enable individuals to take ownership of the challenges facing them, have obvious views on how to work with colleagues, rely on a team approach to management, and work with rather than through individuals*, which are not high on the women's list of attributes although they do agree they should be in the list. In the replies to the questionnaire a woman principal stated that she believed in teams and teamwork and set up many teams but did not have the time to actually work with them.

Simerley (1992) supports the view of setting up and using teams and commented,

Effective leaders ensure that the entire organisation is aware of the effort and success of teams...Through decentralisation and the giving away of power, the leader encourages the development of problem solving and strategic planning by individuals and teams (p10 & 11).

What may be unexpected given some results from the limited work on women leaders is the fact that the attribute of *'enjoy working with and supporting colleagues'* as well as teamwork is lower down in the order of important attributes. Riley (1994) writes about the work of Shakeshaft in which she says that 'women focus on the skills, talents and needs of people within an organisation and understand how to pull these together in some common purpose' (p.90). She reports that women feel that people in the organisation are important. Metcalfe and Nicholson (1984), again found in Riley (1994), also suggest that working with people is also one of the intrinsic factors typical of women leaders, whereas men leaders are concerned with extrinsic factors. It is also in contrast to the work of Fobbs (1990), who found that the majority of women college presidents leadership style was one she called - 'in the relational domain' which was characterised by activities which developed achievement by contributing to the tasks and goals of others.' (Riley, 1994,p.10) She considered that the majority of women leaders preferred to work in groups and achieve in collaborative settings, and to share in success or failure. These groups may be small and may be what some researchers have termed dyadic, involving working in combination with another person. It is considered as being favoured by some leaders, according to the research of Yammarino et al (1997), who identified that

...allowing female leaders to engage in more one-to-one working relationships with subordinates may enhance both leader and subordinate effectiveness. These opportunities for female leaders may be critical regardless of the gender of the subordinate with whom they interact. Similarly, providing a working environment that encourages considerate, warm, participative, interpersonal relationships may result in stronger dyadic bonds between female leaders and their subordinates, thus fostering productivity, effectiveness, satisfaction, and commitment (p.219).

Yammarino et al (1997) further built up a picture of women leaders as people who favoured an 'interpersonally-oriented leadership style' (p.208). They thought that this style may be adopted because it was expected of them by followers and who considered women leaders to be successful if they reflected this style; thus, conversely, if that was expected of them perhaps that is what women leaders did.

Yammarino et al (1997) supported the work of Gibson (1995) in deciding that a

gender-stereotypic feminine leadership style is one in which women display high levels of communal (rather than agentic) attributes such as friendliness, unselfishness, concern for others, and emotional expressiveness. Such leadership is collaborative, democratic, and interpersonal: such leaders help subordinates, do favours for them, and look out for them. Informality, warmth, cooperativeness, low leader control, a participative decision-making style, and problem solving based on intuition and empathy as well as rationality characterise female-stereotypic leadership. These characteristics appear to suggest the likelihood of one-to-one dyadic relationships based on the unique connection between a leader and each of her subordinates(p.208).

Men work with women in different ways and also differ from women in their description of their leadership performance and how they usually influence those with whom they work. Rosener (1990) determined that men are more likely than women to describe themselves in ways that characterise what within this study has been called "transactional" leadership. That is, 'they view job performance as a series of transactions with subordinates - exchanging rewards for services rendered or punishment for inadequate performance' (p.210). A comment from a principal in the survey, male with 5 year's experience as a principal, provided a picture of himself as a transactional leader, 'Build a well organised administration - I pay somebody else to do that.'

Rosener says that the men are also more likely to use power that comes from their organisational position and formal authority. The women leaders she worked with, on

the other hand, described themselves in ways that characterise “transformational” leadership -

getting subordinates to transform their own self-interest into the interest of the group through concern for a broader goal. Moreover, they ascribe their power to personal characteristics like charisma, interpersonal skills, hard work, or personal contacts rather than to organisational stature (p.120).

Jones (1987) identified the role of transformational leader in some of the women headteachers she surveyed and found that they were more aware than men of the need to relate their schools to the local context and to take on the management of change in a creative way. The female headteachers were much more aware of their needs for training in relating to the local environment than were the men. They were also more concerned than were men about training for management of change and for managing interrelationships. They put greater value on the qualities of humour, stamina and creativity in headship than did the men.

As might be expected in this work on leadership such distinctions at the time appear to be in the eye of the beholder and Yammarino et al (1997) put forward a different view as a result of their studies. Their research found that when leaders are women, distinctions between transformational and transactional leadership may not be useful or necessary. Rather,

...differing dyadic relationships among female leaders and their female and male subordinates appear to be the critical factor. Perhaps general dyadic development processes are operating, regardless of whether the leadership involves transformational or transactional behaviours (p.218).

Others too offer a different view and Druskat (1994) found that female subordinates rated female leaders as displaying significantly more transformational behaviours

whereas male leaders who were rated by male subordinates were said to display significantly fewer transformational behaviours.

Rosener (1990), however, did also conclude in a study of international women leaders for the International Women's Forum that they used what she called an interactive leadership style because they tried to make their interactions with subordinates positive for everyone involved. More specifically, the women encouraged participation, power and information sharing, wanting to enhance other people's self-worth, and to get others excited about their work. These identify a transformational style. She confirmed for herself

that women are more likely than men to use transformational leadership - motivating others by transforming their self-interest into the goals of the organisation. Women are much more likely than men to use power based on charisma, work record, and contacts (personal power) as opposed to power based on organisational position, title, and the ability to reward and punish (structural power) (p.123).

Men principals do not ignore this approach but do place emphasis on other attributes which may be seen in the table to include *ensuring their views and approach is clearly understood and set out*, suggesting a more traditional autocratic approach.

A male principal with 5 year's experience as a principal identified what could be termed an autocratic approach in writing this comment on the questionnaire:

'With reference to *enjoy working with and supporting colleagues* - enjoyment doesn't come in to it - there is a job to do [then what could be an afterthought] although obviously better if it can be done with fun.'

They also have *feedback from their colleagues* high on their list perhaps not only as a way of involving staff but also of confirming that staff are carrying out their tasks as

the principal would think fit. Heller (1994) considers messages from colleagues have to be listened to or principals will not be listened to themselves.

Baker and Associates (1992) stress the importance of feedback and are certain that 'Feedback processes can satisfy both organisational and individual needs' (p.10). They also reported that providing subordinates with more feedback contributes to a more achievement-oriented climate which is likely to be more appropriate to the present demands on FE colleges. Isaac-Henry et al (1993) proposed, 'communication strategies, including the necessary staff feedback mechanisms, are indispensable to success.' (p.47). From the research it shows that women principals may not find feedback so helpful or, perhaps listening so easy. As Shakeshaft (1989) discovered in her work on school administrators,

Men receive more feedback and more types of feedback than do women. Women are more likely to get non-evaluation feedback or neutral responses. Men receive both more positive and more negative responses (p.329).

It may be that a lack of feedback is as a result of the way in which women leaders are perceived as dealing with individuals or groups. A review of women leaders in American Universities by Grint (1995) noted that 'Women may have to face a no-win situation because a democratic style of leadership exercised by them may be seen as "soft" or "indecisive" but then assertive leadership is a definite no-no for women' (p.17). In fact, the issue is perhaps not that women are criticised for using assertive leadership - or even not using it - but that, according to some claims e.g. Summers (1993), Rosener (1990), men perceive leadership styles differently from women and vice versa.

In the list of attributes in the study women principals placed *building up an information network to recognise what the future may hold* much higher on their list than did men, perhaps giving support to Rosener's findings. A network of women managers in further education was set up in 1990 in order to support the development of women in senior posts in further education; subsequently several of the leading members have become principals and will undoubtedly be maintaining their contact with one another. (They have continued to maintain contact and have published some research on women principals, in July 1997) Some workers like Zairi (1994) who worked in industries following Total Quality Management processes, identified:

Networking is absolutely essential in modern competitiveness. Through networking, benchmarking activities can take place, to compare practices, methods and performance, to learn new ways and inject them back into organisations concerned and more importantly networking ensures continuity, perseverance and avoids complacency (p.15).

As women principals see the importance of these attributes differently does this say something about their leadership approach? Jenny Ozga (1993, p.11) suggests that there is a women's style of leadership which '...is less hierarchical and more democratic...women appear more flexible and sensitive'. She also offers an explanation of why these differences occur, 'For it is not simply that 'male' and 'female' management styles differ: those styles are predicated on different values' To some extent at odds with Ozga's thesis was the work done by Ferrario (1994) discussed by Coleman (1996, p 171) in which in a study of women headteachers it was noted that 'they largely linked their own success to qualities that might be linked with the traditional male leader; determination, good qualifications and a capacity for hard work.' Coleman also draws on the work of Gray (1993) by introducing what she

calls 'gender paradigms' (p.165) which typify the differences between women and men leaders:

The nurturing/female paradigm	The defensive/aggressive masculine paradigm
caring	highly regulated
creative	conformist
intuitive	normative
aware of individual differences	competitive
non-competitive	evaluative
tolerant	disciplined
subjective	objective
informal	formal

In using this list with 5 female headteachers they identified themselves as being caring, creative, intuitive and aware of individual differences.

Fagerson (1993, p5) drew on the work of Bass and others suggesting 'that women managers have a transformational, democratic, and/or "web" rather than a hierarchical style of leadership.' Antal and Dafna (1990, p71) too consider that there are recognisable differences in the leadership of men and women, '...characteristic of women: co-operativeness and the ability to integrate people, to listen to them, to motivate them through non-monetary incentives...' In work with women principals in the USA Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) report that as a group women are more likely to evidence behaviour associated with effective leadership with the example 'that female principals spent more time in educational programme improvement activities

than did males' (p.160). They also write of the work of Marshal and Mitchell which suggested that 'women principals are more attuned to curriculum issues, instructional leadership, teachers concerns, parent involvement, staff development, collaborative planning strategies, community building and the like' (p.168).

Others provide insights into the gender debate but do not always add clarity, though as with much of the work on leadership, they simply add another view, Strachan (1993,p.73) refers to the work of Neville and Court who found that the women educational leaders they interviewed preferred a style of leadership that emphasised the importance of relationships, that included shared decision-making processes and that was empowering of others, a style that was referred to as "affiliative". She further notes 'good educational leadership practice is seen to more closely fit with the preferred practice of many women.' It is important to recognise, however, that not all women are alike and so inevitably there will be some women who do not use an "affiliative" style of leadership.

Bass and Avolio (1997) in a survey of a range of research based on the use of their leadership survey instrument, the Management Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), looking at the ratings of subordinates on their leaders. Women were 'rated higher than men on three of the '4 I's' comprising transformational leadership' (p.205). Thus women leaders were rated more highly than male leaders on idealised influence (charisma), being inspirational and being individually considerate. (The fourth 'I' was intellectual stimulation and the 'difference was not large enough to be considered reliable (p.205)). They suggest that as a result of this information a female leader is seen as more responsive to and responsible for her followers. Perhaps ideal

characteristics for a people oriented business? Grint (1997) encourages researchers to consider more closely the evidence for differences in women and men leaders and suggests that it depends upon the prior assumption that men and women are essentially different; 'the differences lie within the minds of the genders observed rather than within the minds of the gendered observers' (p.154).

Evetts (1994a) was uncertain if there were differences in the leadership approaches of men and women caused by differences in gender, and in working with 10 male and 10 female headteachers noted that: 'Significant differences in styles of headship are not difficult to demonstrate in general...although the clear linkage of style with gender is more problematic' (p.88). Factors other than gender may be grouped together to give a more complete picture of the attributes that principals consider important in the leadership of colleges of further education.

Years as a Principal

Within this study the researcher considers it is a reasonable hypothesis to propose that there should be differences in leadership attributes as perceived by someone who has just become a principal as against those who have been principals for more than eleven years. Certainly the mixture of expectation and dread as well as excitement and wonder must still be there within a principal's first year. Whereas those who have been principals for more than eleven years might be expected to be a little "battle weary" or fulfilled especially having lead a college through the incredible, kaleidoscopic change of the past ten years or so; those in their first year give importance to those attributes you might anticipate for example, the attribute relating to organisation oriented values is near the top of their list, building a solid foundation

on which they will build the future of their organisation. Those attributes concerned with risk the 'Personal Maturity' skills suggested by Kakabadse (1989) - are low down in the list of attributes. A newly appointed President of a Community College in the USA expressed his concerns about some of the expectations of his leadership thus:

I think your style of leadership changes somewhat as you settle into a presidential position and begin to prove yourself. I think the first period of time, which is measured in months rather than years is difficult. However, after you have been there awhile and the organisation has had some success, you tend to feel a little more secure yourself. I don't believe that you can give something you don't have - I don't think you can empower if you yourself haven't been vested with some power (Lorenzo 1990, p.151).

This security is perhaps best exemplified by the attribute of *using the structure as the vehicle for pursuing policy* being high on their list. This would enable them to develop and explain their vision within a framework and perhaps ensure some inner comfort that there was some element of control. There is a lot of advice available to 'new' principals from other writers; typical of such comment is that from Culpan (1991,p15) who advised that 'Emerging leaders should strive to incorporate employee involvement, concern for employers, innovation, entrepreneurship, strategic planning and responsiveness to customer needs as essential ingredients in their approaches.' There are also some warning comments for new leaders from Ogawa (1995b) that 'successors can upset organisational equilibrium, which can negatively affect performance' (p.383). The attribute *accept friction as a necessary attribute of change* was, as with other principals, in the bottom five of the list, although it might be expected to be higher: Roueche et al (1990) suggest, 'often new presidents with the desire to effect institutional renewal fail to recognise the complexity of the process'(p.169). The only groups to have it out of the bottom six were those with the

longest tenure as principals or as managers who had thus learned by experience that change does have its dissenters.

In comparison those principals with 2-5 years of experience appear to feel already more secure as they list, *have considerable day to day contact with staff*, as high an attribute as *feedback from colleagues*. They more highly rate those attributes linked with 'Personal Maturity' i.e. *ability to receive feedback, ability to negotiate*. They also appear to place a greater emphasis on the integration oriented values of *working with and through colleagues* and helping them *gain ownership for the challenges that will face them*. Chemers (1993) recognises these attributes as being required for successful leadership and states:

Leaders who interact with their subordinates in ways that are seen by them as being intellectually challenging, sensitively considerate and supportive, and expressing an inspirational vision of their collective mission are classed as transformational. Such leaders are viewed in very positive terms by both subordinates and superiors and are frequently associated with very productive groups and organisations (p301).

Those with 2-5 years have also included *be comfortable managing change* in their top three of attributes although to *clearly set out strategies for the management of change* is, perhaps unexpectedly, lower in their order

Working closely with colleagues was an attribute recommended by Schein and quoted by Gram (1996, p.13) who in his research 'found that followers were much more likely to want to identify with leaders and to emulate them if their association with them was close rather than distant'. In Mintzberg's (1975) study of Chief Executives he suggested a typical figure for time spent with subordinates was 48% of their working week. Bass (1988, p.57) too supports the importance of working with

subordinates; 'Leaders with confidence in their subordinates arouse expectations of goal achievement among them. This encourages the self-fulfilling prophecy among the subordinates that they will succeed, and as a consequence, will actually increase the subordinates' likelihood of successful goal attainment.' It is interesting to note that despite this support for *enjoy working with and supporting* it is not recognised as a most important attribute by those who have been principals for 11 years or more and yet they perceive *presentation skills* (a communication skill) as an important attribute - more important than do other groups of principals. These presentations may of course not be to colleagues. Kotter (1990, p.84) suggests 'The leader must have intellectual power-to-analyse and power-to-criticise, and dialogic power to present.' The need to make presentations is recognised by all principals in their returns but it does not come within the top 15 of their attributes except for those who have been principals for 11 years or more. Is this one of the many lessons that should be learned from experience? Or is it symptomatic of a Chief Executive who is becoming more distant from their workforce and their links with their customers? This would make presentations to a large audience easier than face to face discussions with a few on what may have become unfamiliar territory. Good communication skills are associated with charismatic leadership and the ability to 'sell' their vision and goals. Communication is especially important at times of crisis or difficulty where new goals or visions may have to be identified and rapidly accepted. This attribute was recognised by Baumgardner et al (1989) and reported in Lord and Maher (1993) in work they did with top-level leaders.

Perhaps not unexpectedly those principals with more than 11 years experience do not have too many attributes associated with vision for the future near the top of their list

but they do identify a high placing of *being seen as a hardworking and dynamic individual*. The researcher could speculate that this is because whilst they may not be too concerned with the long term future developments they should not be seen to be 'slackening' if they consider their tenure is coming to an end. A principal of 11 years' experience wrote on the questionnaire:

'There are two elements to any organisation -
1. its fundamental design and static structures;
2. the process i.e. dynamics, by which it works.
I would love to have the capacity to distance myself from many issues - I live my role 7 days a week - it never leaves me. I worry too much - I get far too anxious. The secret is not to show it.'

More than 11 years as a leader must take its toll and the experience gained in doing the job should enable the principal to cope with the stress of the role. Instead it may help identify more factors that have to be considered and build up pressure; it also indicates a lack of sharing on the part of this individual. The suggestion from Larwood et al (1995) is that long tenure in a position is 'likely to be linked to such elements of vision as conservatism and focus rather than openness to change' (p.745).

Those who have been principals for 6-10 years show that perhaps the importance of their long term vision might be waning but the medium term requires the attributes of developing and maintaining infrastructure to cope with future changes - indicated by their placing attributes of building a well organised administration in the top half of their list. Surprisingly *using the structure as the vehicle for pursuing policies* is not seen as so important an attribute.

The current length of tenure in a post is significant. In considering tenure, i.e. the number of years those in the survey had been principals, a large proportion of

those surveyed had had this responsibility for less than 10 years: i.e. almost 81% had been principals for less than 10 years with almost 13% being principals for one year or less.

Such length of service and its effects have been studied by Hambrick and Fukutomi (1991). Their model of a president's (the USA equivalence of principal) tenure that suggests it is made up of the five recognisable seasons given in Table 8:

Table 8

The Five Seasons of a CEO's Tenure

Critical CEO characteristics	1 Response to Mandate	2 Experimentation	3 Selection of an enduring theme	4 Convergence	5 Dysfunction
Commitment to paradigm	Moderately strong	Could be strong or weak	Moderately strong	Strong; increasing	Very strong
Task knowledge	Low but rapidly increasing	Moderate; somewhat increasing	High; slightly increasing	High; slightly increasing	High; slightly increasing
Information diversity	Many sources; unfiltered	Many sources but increasingly filtered	Fewer sources; moderately filtered	Few sources; highly filtered	Very few sources; highly filtered
Task interest	High	High	Moderately high	Moderately high but diminishing	Moderately low and diminishing
Power	Low; increasing	Moderate; increasing	Moderate; increasing	Strong; increasing	Very strong; increasing

Hambrick and Finkelstein (1987) suggest that the constraints on leadership are external in the early years of the post but are internal in the later years i.e. they are due to the leader's style, interest and power after being in the post for 10 years or more. Both those who are new and those who have been in tenure a long while also perhaps share or support their vision by relying on the management structure of the

organisation. A relatively new principal will require the structure to delineate and perhaps control their vision; a principal with more than 10 years could be defining their preferred structure to enable new creative staff to participate in the management of the college and rejuvenate their (the principal's) ideas and activities. A much quoted piece of research in the literature points toward the importance of effectiveness of principals who are in the post for a period of time. Eitzen and Yetman (1972) describe their work with college basketball coaches that the longer the coach stayed with the team the greater the team success, up to a period of thirteen years. After this time the performance of the team declined steadily. As with other research on non-college organisations it is questionable as to how applicable this is to the approach of principals.

Principals bring with them to the job not only those attributes that they have stated in the questionnaire but also according to Hambrick and Fukutomi (1991) their 'pre-existing knowledge system and repertoire (a supply of skills, devices, or expedients possessed by a person)' (p.721), some of which they may or may not recognise given the situations they find themselves in. Certainly in the first one or two years at least they are likely to be 'incomplete' in terms of their recognition of the situations they experience during their career as a principal and thus must be given some time and perhaps understanding to develop those attributes required for any situation. Macmillan (1998) shadowed five school principals and decided that there were differences in leadership style dependent upon their length of tenure. He concluded that new principals, 'seem to react like theorists who are suddenly confronted with the application of their theories, and find that their theories have only limited use in the every day operations of schools' (p.181). This may be why boards

should beware short term appointments; as Hambrick and Fukutomi (1991) point out, 'a CEO who leaves prior to four or five years in office has not had a chance to achieve peak performance on the job' (p.738). Macmillan (1998) supports this view and writes,

Mid-career principals had a greater recognition of what is practicable. ...In effect, their vision, contextualised by the current reality, had as its focus the achievable in the short term, while they maintained a conception of where they wanted the school to go in the long term(p.182).

Years in management in further education

The principals were asked how long they had been managers in further education including their time as a principal. Their replies to the questionnaire were grouped according to their length of time as a manager. This affords an opportunity to determine if experience as a manager recognisably influences the choice of attributes for leadership.

The principals with 6-10 years as a manager adhered closely to the proposed structure of leadership as used for drawing up the questionnaire in the way in which they 'ordered' the attributes. They feel the most important attributes are to do with vision, followed by those to do with values and those implementation skills to bring the vision to fruition. The exceptions to this are those attributes that are related to integration - *enable individuals to take ownership of the challenges facing them*; personal maturity - *be comfortable managing change, value the feedback from colleagues*. These illustrate the confidence of this group of principals in themselves and their vision.

This current study suggests those principals with 11-15 years' experience as a manager in further education have reversed the structure somewhat; in terms of the positions in the table they consider the values are more important attributes than the vision. They also appear to consider that feedback is vital, placing it in the top 10 of attributes as also do principals of 21-25 years of further education management experience. Those with such longevity as managers choose a different order for other attributes by placing those to do with values and skills before those of vision, although they do show a willingness to change as represented by their putting as their first choice of attribute *ensure the organisation of the college will meet future challenges* - almost a 'swan song' for this group of principals. Ensuring the college is in 'good condition' when they leave or at least in better condition than it was when they arrived appears to be one of the outcomes that principals strive for. In a study of College Presidents Birnbaum (1986, p384) identified changes on leaving office and 84.2% of presidents stated that the college had changed for the better while they were in office and would be better when they left than when they began. Kakabadse (1991) has found that a manager who has been in the job for some time 'becomes too comfortable and lacks the will and insight to change his organisation should evidence so indicate' (p.107). He further offers a model (See Table 9) that summarises research supporting the view that five to ten years appears to be the optimum time in a job, and concurring with Hambrick and Fukutomi (1991). The tenure of ten years is a suggested time based upon a number of studies and assumes a manager playing an active role in the organisation.

Table 9: Impact of Years in the Job: Results of Research.

Issue	Impact
• Understanding and influencing the organisation structure	Greater the nearer to 10 years in the job
• Trust and tolerance	5+ years in the job
• Follow-through	Greater the nearer to 10 years in the job
• Attention to detail and discipline	Greater the nearer to 10 years in the job
• Outlook and awareness of issues	Greater the nearer to 10 years in the job
• Understanding of customers, competition and improving profitability	5+ years in the job

Derived from Kakabadse (1991,p.108)

With 16-20 years' experience a principal's list of attributes shows an emphasis on a mix of values and vision but with a greater emphasis on those values associated with integration and people oriented attributes. They rate *working with rather than through staff* to be important but as with other groups do not rate as highly *having considerable day to day contact with staff*. In rating the attribute of *professional subject discipline or technical expertise* they may well see this as an important route for communicating their vision. Kakabadse (1990) suggests there are dangers in this approach as in using this technical expertise it may be offering too narrow a view of the future and be understood only by those with similar expertise. Bacharach and Mundell (1995) tell us that research indicates that subordinates tend to respond favourably to new principals 'who exhibit task -relevant expertise' (p.384) this may be a way of providing subordinates with confidence that the leader is able to do the job or that they understand the familiar and have a point of contact with them. Handy and Aitken (1988,p.73) point out that school leaders

can be prisoners of their own culture, so locked into their own world that they become afflicted by their own variety of 'group think', unaware that there are more ways than they know of to run their business.

Jacques (1989) points out the need for experience as he suggests that the time-span a leader must consider for strategic planning may be up to 20 years. Currently in FE the FEFC request a 3 year time scale for a strategic plan and thus experience of more than three years as a leader would help not only in determining possible outcomes but also in providing confidence in some of the strategic thinking to bring about the plans. Agor (1989) considered the development of intuition which he thought improved with experience and in any strategic thinking it is likely that intuition will have a part to play. One of the other features of experience is it enables leaders to cope with stress (Linville and Clark (1989), Kakabadse and Dainty (1989)). It may also help leaders identify stress in others.

Qualifications of principals

As a researcher into leadership the category of principals within their groupings according to qualifications was one that I considered might be informative. Some management training and some higher orders of knowledge in education could well have a great influence on their approach to leadership. Some should be able to draw on a lot of management and leadership theory and relevant practice to support it. The difference between these particular groups and others was that some of them did not place the attributes of *being able to influence people to their own point of view* and *take responsibility for the errors of colleagues* in the bottom 5 of their selection. Both of these attributes are indicative of an interpersonal approach with *take responsibility for the errors of their colleagues, encourage creative skills in all staff* and *employ staff who have a high level of interpersonal skills* as values that are interpersonal oriented and *be able to influence people to their own point of view*, that is a communication skill. *Taking responsibility for the errors of colleagues* is the

value characteristically stated as ‘The buck stops here’ approach to leadership as a traditional approach of leaders and yet most principals had retained it in their bottom 3 of the list. However, those principals with an HNC/HND have the attribute above their bottom 15, and those with a PhD moved it out of the bottom 10. These are principals who are likely to be interpersonally oriented in their values and thus judge people by their manners, interpersonal conduct or skills. Sometimes this judgement may not be helpful as it may be judging processes and personal preference rather than results.

Principals with a Masters degree in management report that *being able to influence people to their own point of view* is one they rate highly more than any other group and is one that the current researcher based on personal experience may have expected to have been found higher in other groups too. It may be that this is a more popular view of staff of their leaders rather than the view of leaders themselves i.e. staff attributing leadership skills to a leader by dint of their perceptions based upon their previous experience of leaders, perhaps in a wide range of different contexts. Maurer and Lord (1988) carried out work on leader perception with college undergraduates and found that they ‘placed’ leaders into particular categories according to their previous experience. It may be that staff associate power with the leader and with such power a leader will be able to ‘enforce’ his/her views. Principals with such degrees also place *paint a clear picture of future change* in the top 10 to indicate their recognition of the importance of vision in their leadership and would be able to use their attribution of power from staff to enable them to ‘sell’ their vision.

Those with BA, Masters or PhD appear to place less priority on those attributes dealing with a college vision than do others. They have a mix of drives and

skills with no apparent link e.g. the attributes of *valuing feedback from colleagues* is within the top 10 of the list in all three groups but *seeking and receiving feedback from colleagues* is in the bottom 6 for BA, 12th for the Masters and 17th for the PhD. For most groups they are within 5 or 6 places of one another. Those with a BSc or Masters place the attribute *defining clearly the management structure of the college* in the bottom half of the list but all others have it in the top 7. These principals do not see the structure as being as vital as for example *ensuring the organisation of the college meets future challenges*. Is this because they are not able to see any link between these attributes? Those with a PhD placed *encourage creative skills in all staff in their top five* much higher than any other group. It is the use of this attribute that will increase the flexibility of an organisation. With the FEFC demanding increases in numbers it should have been higher in the priority list of all other groups.

In 1978, Maude found that 'In Britain, formal qualifications seem to be less relevant to success in business than in America and most European countries' (p. 4). The lack of formal 'Management in further education' qualifications in college principals in England would appear to support that view.

Age of principals

The influence of age in ordering the attributes also contributes to the debate. As might be expected, those principals in the 41-45 year age group have a different order of attribute from those of 56-60 year olds. It might be felt that younger principals should have more energy, more new ideas and more up to date views on leadership; those in the 56-60 age group might be expected to be more philosophical as they have seen and been party to lots of change, and to seek fewer new ideas as they have discovered a 'system' that works. They may also be expected to have what might be considered to

be a more old-fashioned approach to leadership. Larwood et al (1995) suggest that chief executives who are older 'tend to be more cognitively advanced than younger executives and to view their work as extending over longer time periods'(p.745). Thus it might be expected that the attributes *ensure the organisation of the college will meet future challenges*, and *show an anticipation of future change* would be high in their priorities, as these reflect forward thinking. They are both there in the top eleven for those aged 51-55 but not both in the top twenty in those aged 56-60 and thus within the limits of the examples are at odds with Larwood et al (1995). With reference to organisations rather than individuals Mintzberg et al (1998) proposed that,

The older an organisation the more formalised its behaviour. As organisations age , they tend to repeat their behaviours: as a result, these become more predictable and so more amenable to formalisation (p.343).

The 41-45 year age group of principals has selected those attributes that reflect the importance of vision by placing it in their top 5 priorities, whereas those in the 56-60 group have within their top 10 those skills related to personal maturity and the organisation. These include *seeking and valuing feedback from colleagues* in the top 7 of their list whereas they only just make the first 15 for those 41-45. Perhaps the feedback is for reassurance at age 56-60 that they are still doing a good job and seen as criticism at 41-45 years of age. The 56-60 year olds also list *professional, subject discipline and technical expertise* much higher in the order than others, with the 41-45 year olds seeing the importance of using this expertise within their management strategy. It is perhaps a way of assuring staff of their qualities by having something in common with some staff at least. It may also be that in time they have come to realise that professional expertise is an asset. Smith and Andrews (1989) in a study of 1200

principals in the USA noted that ‘schools operated by principals who were perceived by their teachers to be strong instructional leaders exhibited significantly greater scores in achievement in reading and mathematics than did schools operated by average and weak instructional leaders’ (p.9). As 56-60 year old principals they also appear to place a greater emphasis on what are termed the integration oriented values in which they rate those attributes concerned with working closely with people and actively working with and in teams. Rajan and van Eupen (1996) found that trust was the most important attribute of a leader as stated by leaders in their work with the financial services industry. They did not define trust in their report, Burdett (1997) does, suggesting that there are five characteristics that dominate trust. His suggested attributes have some measure of agreement with those in the principals’ study.

Table 10: Comparison of Burdett’s Key Characteristics of Trust with Attributes from the Study of Principals.

Burdett’s characteristics	Principals’ attributes
The ability to build rapport	<i>working with rather than through people, have clear recognisable views on how the college is managed, value feedback from colleagues</i>
Be respected	<i>being an active team player, have professional, subject discipline or technical expertise</i>
Enjoy working with colleagues	<i>Enjoy working with colleagues</i>
Shared values	<i>Seek an organisation that is responsive to customer need, encourage creative skills in staff</i>
Commitment to carry through and deliver that which has been agreed	<i>Be seen as a hard-working and dynamic individual, have clear recognisable views on how the college should be managed</i>

The table is developed from the work of Burdett (1997)

Such a ‘definition’ of trust would appear to support the attributes that are prioritised by those in the 56-60 year age group whose experience has helped them to identify and use those attributes of leadership that they consider effective. Trust is

important for Zand (1997) who considers that leadership is made up of three critical forces: trust, knowledge and power. He suggests that trust is the most elusive element in this triadic, made up of disclosing information, sharing influence and exercising appropriate control, elements that loosely match those of Burdett (1997). Perhaps such attributes have a more general leadership application; certainly Bennis and Nanus (1985) are convinced of its importance identifying trust as 'the lubrication that makes it possible for organisations to work' (p.43).

Principals of 41-46 years of age rate more highly than other age groups those attributes associated with interpersonal skills, i.e. *able to influence people to their own point of view, enjoy working with and supporting colleagues*. They probably consider they should rely on personal contact and their interpersonal skills for sharing their vision, which is possibly an even more charismatic approach to leadership. Principals in the 56-60 age group in particular rate presentation skills highly, which may suggest a confidence and openness in dealing with colleagues, and with their greater emphasis on being seen as hard working and dynamic they may consider themselves as providing a role model for staff. Fisher et al (1988, p.590) found in a study of presidents of community colleges that the greatest number of effective presidents clustered between the ages of 50 - 59. The researcher should perhaps concentrate more on the attribute list of this age group if they too are the 'effective' principals in further education. Although Blumberg and Greenfield (1986) found that weariness rather than passion was the most common shared feeling among veteran principals, there was no such evidence in the data or comments from principals in this study.

Sturdivant and Adler (1976), inquiring into the background of executive leaders, revealed that most top executives are middle-aged or elderly, with 97% over 45 and 60% in the 55-65 age range. Trapp (1998) notes that age and length of time in the organisation are influential factors in affecting leadership. The age profile of principals in the study showed a predominance of those in the over 50 age group i.e. just over 60%. In a study of a group of effective presidents (as determined by the opinions of a national survey of college presidents) of community colleges in the USA Fisher et al (1988) found that the over 50 age group was much more predominant with more than 74% of those surveyed in that age group. Linked to age is also that of tenure i.e. the number of years those in the survey had been principals. A large proportion of those surveyed had had this responsibility for less than 10 years; almost 81% had been principals for less than 10 years with almost 13% being principals for one year or less. The age of leaders does appear to make a difference in identifying attributes but from the principals' survey it is not able to suggest an optimum age.

Table 9 summarises the effects of time on the leader/CEO of a college, and may have implications for those colleges that have a principal at a young age e.g. 40 years of age, who is still a principal more than 10 years later i.e. at 50 years of age, they may by then be clinging to an obsolete manner for leading an institution and will still have many potential years left before they reach the official retirement age of 60 or 65. Such principals also appear to be less able to take or to seek criticism after years in the post just as those when in post less than one year for whom criticism may be seen as 'sour grapes' or as a challenge rather than helpful. Several researchers in other industries have suggested that younger CEOs are more change oriented, encourage

growth and innovation strategies, and have more volatile sales in their organisations(Alutto and Hrebiniak (1975); Child (1974)).

Attributes identified by corporation members

The attributes identified by corporation members have also been placed into an order of priority. In this case only 24 attributes have been identified. Within the list there is a clear emphasis on integration oriented values and the skills of the individual and less emphasis on the vision. Greater care in the interpretation of the results from the corporations may have to be taken as it is not always certain who has produced the information for the job advertisements used in the study since some boards have used consultants to shortlist potential candidates and to organise the selection process. This may have been put in place in a 'hands off' manner where board members simply give a brief to the consultants to identify the best candidates for the job; some boards draw up the specification for candidates but ask consultants to carry out a technical task in selection; some boards will take responsibility for the whole process from start to finish. Such differences in responsibility may lead to misinterpretation of statements. However, such misinterpretation itself may be a norm for boards i.e. many boards and individual members have their own bias of views on the attributes of a principal which may or may not be reflected in their public statements in the form of application details. The research of Hanson (1985), although based in schools rather than colleges, showed that the governors of a school bring with them bias not only of schooling and school types but also of organisations. This may vary along a continuum of those who consider the school should be run as a tight ship with a chain of command to those who have a more open view of organisations in which there is a

very democratic, pupil centred approach to decision making. Such bias will be likely to be recognisable in the specification for a principal.

The attributes selected may have been drawn up with limited knowledge of the day to day working of a college principal as a result of their own lack of experience rather than personal bias. In a recent communication with Jay (1997), working on the selection process of a principal, a clear dichotomy was detected between the views of a corporation and the views of the college senior managers on what was required of a principal. There is an emphasis in the list of attributes of the corporation members on integration oriented values and the skills of communication and externally oriented values. He provided a personality profile of a principal drawn from the selection process by corporation members which consisted of the following personality characteristics: very open minded to change, low anxiety, trusting, high intelligence, high assertiveness, team focused, confident/bold, open, extrovert, independent (persuasive) some of which character may be seen in the attributes proposed by the corporations. A mis-match of personality characteristics and attributes may show genuine difference with what is required to be a principal and what corporations suggest is desirable.

From the survey the corporations are seeking principals who are sensitive to customer need and place an emphasis on the external market and have high energy and drive (tenacity). They also seek those with personal maturity skills who can cope with difficult situations. This may indicate that they consider that the principal has to have a people focused management style to fulfil the leadership of staff requirement of the Act. They also include aspects that do not easily fit into the leadership structure as

outlined in the study, which they describe as - first class leadership qualities. They do not define these qualities and yet appear to see them as a separate attribute from the other criteria they have proposed. This may mean that corporations or their human resource consultants see leadership as an entity in itself.

The order of the attributes in the corporation list is at odds with those lists provided by principals where except the 56-60 age group all placed the attributes concerned with the future and how to shape the organisation in the top 10 of their list. The group of principals aged 56-60 have in common 6 of their top 11 attributes with the corporations top 10 although not in a similar order. Could the corporation requirements reflect the attributes of a principal it is familiar with? The corporation expects its principal to *recognise what the future may hold* and to be able to talk about it. It also expects, from the emphasis placed on the priorities of attributes, that a principal will spend a lot of time talking to and working with staff, perhaps not so much sharing a vision as policing their work. The corporation may be seeing themselves as some sort of 'watchdog' on the work of the college and the principal to take the 'terrier' role.

As if confirmation of the 'hands on' role the corporation place curriculum development as a key attribute of a principal. The *use of their professional expertise* is low in the attributes of most groups of principals except for those in the 56-60 age group. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) studied the headteachers of 50 schools and found that effective headteachers showed such leadership as:- understanding the needs of the school; active involvement with staff, planning and collaborating; involvement in curriculum discussions; concern with the teaching strategies;

monitoring all aspects of the service; planned staff development; willingness and ability to delegate; ability to empower staff. That is, effective leaders in schools showed professional expertise in teaching and the curriculum and may indicate that corporations are confusing the needs of a school and that of a college and are not yet informed enough about the 'workings' of a college to delineate its needs more distinctly. Or they recognise that the professional expertise will be influential in a principal's leadership role. Or they may be using it simply as a selection vehicle as technical or professional expertise is readily identified and measured.

Boards do have a view on the way in which the college should be led and their personal bias may reflect the style of leadership they seek in a principal. Their selection skills have been tested more than they may have expected as in Dec. 96 to Feb 97 more than 30 principals announced their resignations and more are expected to make public their decision to leave before the end of term, according to FE Now! in Feb 97. This pattern has continued and in Nov.1998 FE Now! reported '32% of colleges have appointed a new principal since Sept. 1996' (p.1). Bob Bennett (1997) the President of the Association of Principals of Colleges, warned that 'it will put a great deal of pressure on governing bodies to find people who have the right sort of background in management skills, and particularly the financial management experience needed in the uncertain period ahead' (p.1). Coulson-Thomas (1994) found,

Whether or not a company grows or declines depends upon the purpose and direction established by the board...Whether or not managers display leadership qualities can, in turn, depend upon the extent to which they are motivated and empowered by the board. Some boards stifle initiative while others encourage it...Too many boards fail to provide their organisations with a distinctive and compelling rationale for existence(p.19).

Thus there is not simply bias but a lack of familiarity with what is required of a governor, or lack of the skills required of a governor. There may be conflict as a result of the board's views and that of the principal. Bennett (1996) claims ' a mismatch of experience and expertise' (p28), between governors from private industry and principals with experience only of the public sector. The conflict may be concerned with the amount of risk that a principal is allowed to make. Perhaps those principals who do not stress the importance of strategy in their list of attributes may have a low risk approach to strategy formulation. Such a characteristic may also indicate other leadership styles e.g. low risk may also mean seeking greater control and greater centralisation. Such leadership dimensions are considered by Nahavandi and Malekzadeh (1993) who proposed the following categories of leaders:

Challenge-seeking	High challenge-seeking	<u>Type 1</u> Challenge-seeking leader who does not delegate and maintains control over all implementation	<u>Type 2</u> Challenge-seeking leader who delegates the process of implementation
	Low challenge-seeking	<u>Type 3</u> Challenge-averse leader who does not delegate and maintains control over implementation	<u>Type 4</u> Challenge-averse leader who delegates the process of implementation
		High control	Low control
		Desire for control	

Figure 1 Strategic Leadership Dimensions. From Nahavandi and Malekzadeh (1993, p.415)

There is not a lot of evidence that boards give such theory a consideration although in many advertisements they do indicate that the role of a principal is a challenging one. The challenge for both boards and principal could be what level of control they seek to meet the challenge. The acceptance of risk-taking as part of the institution's way of

life and consequential management support and encouragement seems to be a necessary part of imaginative leadership. Miller and Lieberman (1982), identified this situation in the area of politics and noted, 'For any leader wielding more power or less than is acceptable to either the ruling team or the electorate puts his or her position at risk' (p.21). Yet what is acceptable is often grounded in traditional notions of responsible leadership. Stern (1993) recognised the dilemma of risk in a political context, 'If Lord Home's colleagues thought him too weak to continue as Premier, Margaret Thatcher's colleagues came to think of her as too strong and rejected her' (p.3). Such risk and power could form the basis of differences between governors and principals and could bias boards when they come to selection of new principals for conflict may mean the avoidance of a particular leadership role and lack of conflict may mean the continuance of an approach without considering the effectiveness of the principals. Aram et al (1995) considered the way in which boards and principals may work together. A summary of their proposed model is set out in Figure 2.

From the model a principal who is open and with an enquiring board offers the most effective approach to college leadership. Such characteristics or the potential for them should be sought during the selection of principals and the subsequent working relationship during the principal's tenure. The selection of a new principal may be from within or outside the college. 'Being appointed from within the college had some disadvantages but it also had one tremendous advantage in that I was already aware of the problems and difficulties and could therefore begin to institute change immediately' (p.396). So said Twyman (1990) a successful internal applicant. This eagerness to change is not always recognised or associated with those principals who were internal applicants.

Figure 2: Model of the Way in which Principals and Boards may Work Together

Corporation Members	Inquiring	Underutilised	High Potential: Mutually supportive and performance-focused
	Passive	Statutory	Underdeveloped
		Defensive	Open
		CEO	

After, Aram, J.D. et al (1995, p.25)

Leaders selected from outside the organisation have been shown to be more change-oriented than insiders (Carlson, 1972; Kotin and Sharaf, 1976). Bacharach and Mundel (1995) noted that in the USA as leadership of schools and colleges becomes more necessary and more difficult at times of uncertainty and conflict(c.f. any time during the 90s in education in the UK.) they have begun a practice of firing principals after two or three years in office as they do not meet the boards' expectations. As has already been pointed out this may be too soon to judge the effects of a new leader.

Chapter Six

Conclusion

In the course of this study FE has moved from the 'Cinderella' of the education service to be recognised as a 'powerhouse for the national economy as well as the way forward for a multitude of people young and old.' (Dearing, 1998, p.13) The government has changed from Conservative to New Labour and according to Twining and Ward (1997) as a new government it will change things, 'by repackaging what is already there, or by adopting and re-branding changes initiated by their predecessors, or by introducing completely new ideas' (p.8). The management force (or controlling force by dint of its funding power) for further education, the FEFC has had to reconsider its aims and has modified its corporate plan for 1997-1998 to 1999-2000 in order to take account of the Government's new priorities. The FEFC (1998) report listed these priorities as:

Welfare to Work and New Deal; raising and maintaining standards and levels of achievement; widening participation and combating social exclusion; inclusive and lifelong learning; regionalisation; collaboration and rationalisation; appropriate funding for additional provision; effective governance and management (p.1).

This increase in importance of FE reflects the increasing importance of the education sector. The criticisms of the education system in the 1970s did not, as Merson (1994) suggested, take note of all relevant factors. He argues that:

The claim, by the Labour Government of the day [i.e. 1976-77], was that the education service did not transmit the relevant skills, knowledge and attitudes which were needed for a successful industrial economy...It excluded other apposite economic explanations, e.g. the role of newly emerging economies competing in manufacturing; the poor history of investment in industrial research and development in Britain; and the uneven commitment of British employers to investment in training (p.303).

This educational or economic crisis led to increasing government intervention by Prime Minister and leading Ministers and from being an almost backroom ministry the post of Education Secretary has been politically powerful. Since 1981 'the position has been occupied by an established political figure (Sir Keith Joseph) and a succession of rising stars' (Batteson, 1997, p.363). All have endeavoured to revolutionise our approach to education. The major revolution for FE came with the Further and Higher Education Act in 1992 which followed what was thought to be a substantial reform of FE in the guise of the Education Reform Act (1988) introduced to make colleges more responsive to the needs of employers. The 1992 Act was influenced much more by the ideology of the then government which demanded a market-oriented and competitive approach and insisted colleges had to increase their client group with a 25% growth in student numbers, improve their standards by raising staying on rates and completion rates, and reduce their costs. This environment of change continues, albeit with a new and a more supportive government. Whether this brings about a more buoyant and self-confident further education sector that will be responsive, flexible, cost effective and efficient remains to be seen.

The Government is using the recommendations and momentum of the Kennedy Report (1997) to help create a new philosophy about the purposes of education and has a 'key role in presenting the powerful vision of a learning nation' (p.7). Colleges have a major function in achieving this vision and college principals a role in leading the way to its achievement.

This leadership research has concentrated on the roles of leaders at the top of the organisation in further education colleges; this is a concept of leadership that is by virtue of position and may be, at times, attributed simply because they have been appointed principal. It might also be termed strategic leadership. The study has adhered to the belief that principals as leaders do provide a beneficial effect on their organisations. Ogawa and Hart (1985) put a value on effective leadership:

[The study's] most important finding was that the principal variable accounted for between 2 and 8 per cent of the variance in test scores...findings of research on school effectiveness suggest that even small proportions of variance are important. Jencks and his associates demonstrate that only about 15% of the total variance in student achievement is attributable to between school differences. Further, Rowan and his associates conclude that about 5% of the total variance in student achievement can be attributed to stable state-level properties. In light of these results, the discovery that 2%-8% of variance in student performance is attributable to principals takes on a glow of relative importance (p.65).

Research in other fields has shown improvement attributable to effective leadership and Fiedler and House (1988) argue that even if differences in leadership behaviour do account for a relatively small proportion of the variance in performance, perhaps as low as 10%, this does not mean that the leader's contribution is negligible. Most leaders, as they rightly point out 'would give their eye teeth for this extra 10% of the variance' (p.83).

This may offer a false view of leadership in a modern institution as most organisational researchers agree that leadership in current successful organisations occurs throughout its structure. The research work in schools has shown this model of 'shared' or democratic leadership more readily than in colleges, and it is considered to be effective. Riley (1998) confirms this view and argues that,

The first thing to be said is that there is no single package for school leadership, no one model to be learned and applied in unrefined forms in all contexts, no all-purpose recipe, although there are some common ingredients...The final thing to be said about school leadership is that good leadership is shared (p.19).

Silins (1994) encourages principals by supporting the development of a shared leadership model,

Principals do not have a monopoly on leadership, but they do have a position in terms of status, power and mechanisms readily available to them that facilitate the operationalisation of leadership into process strategies which can lead to school improvement. A principal can demonstrate leadership by sharing leadership with others in the school (p.273).

Blase (1987) similarly argues that a principal can achieve more status by empowering others.

This research of college principals is based on the premise that management is different from leadership with Rajan and van Eupen (1997) offering a definition that supports this view by stating that

management is about now, leadership is about the future; one implements goals, the other sets them; one relies on control, the other inspires trust; one deals in rational process the other in emotional horizons (p.5).

This view is strengthened by Millett (1996) who as head of the Teacher Training Agency and responsible for setting up training for headteachers, asserts that 'The central issue we need to tackle is leadership, in particular how the qualities of leadership can be identified and fostered' (p.21).

The results of the study indicate what principals identify as the attributes required for leadership, although one of the principals in the survey pointed out, 'I agree with all of the attributes. That does not mean I or others have them.' A recognition of an

attribute and its priority does also offer the opportunity to consider style. For example, if principals rate highly the attribute *work with rather than through colleagues* they are unlikely to have an autocratic style of leadership. What the research has not attempted to do is identify which of the leadership attributes are associated with effective colleges.

There is evidence that since 1995 many colleges have not had effective leadership. Colleges have failed to maintain cost-effective growth and more than 60% are in financial difficulties. Confirming this the FEFC (1998) report noted that , ‘ The 96-97 accounts suggest that the financial health of the sector continues to be poor’ (p.8). The difficulties are due to poor leadership either from Government, corporation (i.e. governors) or principal. Bradley (1996) offers the argument ‘that external factors which influence a college’s potential for growth have not been taken into account when determining their funding’ (p.384). But this is another variable that an effective leader has to take into account when providing the leadership of the college.

Further research should be carried out to identify the links between leadership attributes and leadership effectiveness as measured by current FEFC performance indicators. Such research would, in particular, be of vital help to corporation members who have the overall responsibility for the success of the college, but who delegate much of this to a principal for whom they have sole selection responsibility.

Corporations require more information to determine successful models for the selection and support of principals and their senior managers. This greater knowledge and understanding of the college should come with time and increased involvement

with the college. More meetings dealing with specific features of the college as well as the once a term board meeting would help in providing members with an improved perspective of the college. Beekun et al (1998) found in their work with hospital boards that the ignorance of board members led them to 'fulfil their oversight responsibilities by holding the CEO strictly accountable for the financial outcomes of the corporation' (p.15).

The research has recognised that there are attributes that are considered to be important to leaders but whose effect may vary owing to the influence of demographic factors. However the research is not able to rate the importance of such demographic factors and thus which of them may have the greatest weighting in the selection or effectiveness of principals. In a recent study of leaders in the National Health Service, an example of a public sector body that has recently followed a similar corporate route to colleges and become market-oriented and more accountable to its 'customers', Korac-Kakabadse et al (1998) found that 'demographic characteristics are influential in forming leadership philosophies, namely job and organisational tenure and experience of senior management responsibilities' (p.1) but unlike the research on college principals they did not find that gender influenced leadership. This study of college principals has found that the prioritisation of attributes for leadership is influenced by demographic characteristics including that of gender. In drawing inferences from the priorities of attributes it should be noted:

leadership is a very complex and contingent issue, that leadership qualities are not necessarily transferable across time and space, and that there may well be a large degree of pattern imposition here. By that I mean that the researchers may well bear considerable responsibility for deciding which traits are important by investigating some but not others (Grint, 1997, p.86).

The attributes prioritised by the principals are those provided by the researcher (no principal who completed the questionnaire changed the wording or added any other questions to the questionnaire). Principals' views may be restricted by the framework and content of the questions. This research on principals has occurred as they have moved from LEA led institutions to corporation led institutions. Thus the overall view of leadership from the principals may be modified as a result of the new experiences they are living through and the applicability or otherwise of the questionnaire. But other public sector industries are going through similar changes and the results of recent research are gradually being made available.

Ghobadian et al (1997) studied the influence of the leadership of chief executives in the recently privatised Regional Electricity Companies (RECs) and their study could provide some provisional guidelines or benchmarks for the behaviour of CEOs in the recently incorporated FE sector. They went beyond the scope of this study in analysing the strategies and subsequent effectiveness of decisions in these newly changed organisations and concluded that the change in the industry was transformational. In the review of literature there was a lot of evidence for the transformational style of leadership in the turbulent 90s environment of colleges. Ghobadian et al suggest a change that anecdotally would appear to mirror changes in FE post-incorporation. They have acknowledged that:

...our analysis of leaders and of the behaviour of the RECs would seem to detect a response which would not normally seem appropriate to a transformational change. What we have observed is a change process which could more accurately be described as developmental, wherein a company becomes better at something, but doesn't abandon its foundation, roots or essential being; essentially an incremental approach, placing emphasis upon factors such as efficient operations (p.40).

The change process for FE has not been incremental nationally but has occurred in a radical and rapid fashion from the 1988 Act to the 1992 Act. It has been accompanied by targets and changed funding formulae, with widening participation and government initiatives. The leadership from the current Labour Government is also seeking great changes and is regularly reinforcing its vision for education and the need for such leadership is not doubted in the literature. Working with service industries in the City of London, leadership was defined by Rajan and vanEupen (1997) as 'first and foremost, [leadership] is about taking people where they have never been before. It is about creating an image of the future that induces enthusiasm and commitment' (p.28). This is a methodology that the current government is endeavouring to use both in their communications and their actions for education in Britain.

In considering the results of the attribute survey of principals it was noted that they did not put as a priority *paint a clear picture of future change* which would be their complete vision, but they did rate highly organisation and *strategy to anticipate and react to future change* which represents routes to achieving their vision. Governors of colleges placed the *ability to provide strategic vision* as their second priority. This could lead to the conclusion that governors (or their recruitment consultants) are more aware of modern leadership approaches than are principals, and provides scope for speculating that governors are trying to bring in their experiences from outside education in order to improve the leadership of the college. Principals, on the other hand, might share Glatter's (1997) wariness of bringing in management practice from outside education. This wariness was in part because of the change of context and in part the concern that what is good practice now may not be good tomorrow as there are 'fads and fashions - trumpeted for a while as the acme of good practice' (p.187).

As Kennedy (1997) points out in Chapter Two, new business practices have not yet been introduced wisely.

In analysing the comments of the leaders in their study Rajan and vanEupen (1997) proposed the earlier definition. They also recognised that in considering leadership and the leadership role they had to take account of the

characteristics of the leaders; the needs, attitudes and expectations of the followers; the circumstances and characteristics of the organisation in which they work; the social, economic and political milieu in which the organisation operates (p.24).

The 'political milieu' is now familiar to further education both internally to the college and externally. It has had a major influence on colleges since 1993 and looks likely to continue even under a supportive government. Whilst this survey of principals has also drawn on a collective view of leadership the view does differ from that of the service sector as represented by Rajan and vanEupen (1997). This would be expected if the factors of influences on leaders in education are different from those in other service industries. In using the summaries of the survey of principals it shows that there is general agreement that there is a set of essential attributes for effective leaders. What the research has been unable to show is substantial agreement on which of the attributes should be in this set. The results of the questionnaire have offered a set of attributes that principals have identified as being important for leadership and there is substantial agreement between the principals on the top ten attributes. There are, however, exceptions which appear to be dependent on the personal/demographic profiles of the principals.

There were differences in the attribute priorities of men and women principals and these findings were in common with other researchers. Eagly and Johnson (1990) found differences between women and men leaders when they reviewed 162 studies examining leadership styles across genders and reported that,

... the strongest evidence we obtained for a sex difference in leadership style occurred in the tendency for women to adopt a more democratic or participative style and for men to adopt a more autocratic or direct style. 92% of the available comparisons went in the direction of more democratic behaviour from women than from men (p.247).

There is some evidence in this study that women are less concerned with structure than men but that 'caring' is about the same priority in both as typified by *enjoy working with and supporting colleagues* which is a mid-table priority in both groups.

Bass and Avolio (1997) quote from an article in Nation's Business by Sharon Nelton (1991) in which she asked : 'Are women's leadership styles different from men's?' They use a comment from Fortune magazine in which Jaclyn Firmani (1990, p. 115) wrote: 'Yes...and they are far better suited than men to run companies in the nineties'. More broadly based research supporting a view of differences between men and women as leaders is related in a report, *Developing Leadership for the 21st Century* (1996), by the Economist Intelligence Unit in association with Korn/Ferry International. It forecasts that the new generation of leaders will have an equal balance of "masculine" and "feminine" personality traits. Men are seen as being risk-takers, self-confident and highly competitive; women are seen as stronger in building relationships and as being willing to share power and information. According to this research, 'leadership in the new environment is about taking people where they have

never been before. It is also about developing the essential emotions, excitement and convictions that help people to cope with the journey' (p.28).

Women principals had *encourage creative skills in all staff* high on their list and this too may signify a leadership approach that will be more appropriate for the millennium. Bhindi and Duignan (1997) proposed that

leaders in the new century will need to be more sensitive and caring in their attitudes and relationships and more adaptable and flexible in their practices if they are to release the potential, and tap the diversity of talents, of those who work with them (p.119).

The flexible practices and building relationships, both within and outside the college were attributes placed higher on the list by women than by men.

Kakabadse and Myers research with senior managers in a large number of public and private companies is reported by Trapp (1998) who comments that the

...study suggests that the similarities between senior male and female managers far outweigh the differences...and shows that quality of management, communication, clarity of vision, and ability to relate within the top team and across the organisation, do not differ according to gender (p.1).

However, Lord and Maher (1993) recognised that 'women at all levels of an organisation are likely to experience some problems in establishing perceptions of leadership...' (p.113). Such bias may affect many of the leadership processes and '...may also limit women's ability to influence organisational effectiveness and performance' (p.113). Other surveys of college leaders have shown that women work harder than men e.g. as judged by Rouché et al (1990). Their study of community college presidents in the USA found that 'On average, women worked a longer number of hours per week...a total of 75 hours per week at college activities' (p.71).

This was approximately 10 hours a week more than the average male principal. The differences noted in the principal survey were that women principals were influenced by the nature and expectation of women within the FE environment. In a review by women principals Stott and Lawson (1997) thought that 'FE is still a very male environment with which women have to come to terms if they want to succeed' (p.55).

More and more women are succeeding in becoming principals and with that success perhaps their perceptions of leadership of the organisation will change. The education environment is already changing and will require the attribute related to networking which women placed very high in their list of priorities (11th, and men placing it 27th). Riley (1997) argues that the more dispersed government of post-16 education now operates through a multiplicity of organisational markets and networks and such networks '...require more explicit creation and maintenance and a mixture of formal and informal relationships' (p.157). She further goes on to explain that, 'Successful networking can create financial gains for organisations' (p.165). Under the new Labour Government more opportunities for seeking funding will be via partnerships bidding to Regional Development Groups (DoE,1997). Thus networks already in place will have a head start in that process.

The survey has demonstrated that there are a number of influences on the selection of attributes for leadership in common with other researchers. Kakabadse and Kakabadse (1998) reporting on their recent leadership research in the public sector noted that age and length of time in the organisation are influential factors in affecting leadership. Hambrick and Fukutomi (1991) do suggest that 'Because of the learning and

experimentation process, a CEO who leaves prior to four or five years in office has not had a chance to achieve peak performance on the job' (p.738). From the survey the largest number of principals with tenure of six or more years as a principal were in the 51-55 year age range and if the hypothesis of Hambrick and Fukitomi is valid then the selection of attributes from this group will have more weight than those of other groups.

Such views on the influence of age or tenure on the leadership role have been supported by Nahavandi and Malekzadeh (1993) and a part of their survey has been summarised in the following table:

Table 11: Possible Links Between Leadership Characteristics and Leadership Approach

Studies	Leadership characteristics	Findings/propositions
Alutto and Hrebniak (1975)	Age (D)	Older CEOs avoid risk and maintain status quo
Carlson (1972)	Outsiders v insiders	Outsider CEOs make more changes
Child (1974)	Age	Younger CEOs encourage growth and have more volatile sales
Guth and Tugiuri (1965)	Values	Leader values impacts strategy formulation. The extent to which Top management team's values match the leaders reinforces the leaders' impact on strategy
Pfeffer (1983)	Tenure and age	Youth related to more innovation; longer tenure related to centralised power.

In their studies of the electric power industries Ghobadian et al (1997) recognised three degrees of change in the privatisation process or immediate post-privatisation process, which were linked to tenure as well as insider v outsider appointments of CEO: (1) no change where the CEO has remained the same in the 5 years preceding privatisation;(2) small change, where the CEO has been re-appointed from within the company or from within the industry;(3) wider change, where the CEO has been re-

appointed but from outside the industry. They identified that more innovative behaviour appears to have come from those companies that have seen more changes to their CEO. Cunningham (1994) suggests that this is because when a new CEO takes over a lot of new learning takes place to change what an earlier CEO has put in place.

Ghobadian et al (1996) had earlier concluded that the RECs were principally companies which exhibited 'defender' characteristics; that is to say they were companies that tended towards policies which emphasised efficiency over innovation. They tended to seek out niche market opportunities, emphasised hierarchical management structures, and were characterised by managers who had grown up with the company and who would enjoy long tenure of employment. For those of us working in FE this is not an unfamiliar model.

This provides further confirmation of the importance of chief executives and of the need to understand the attributes of a CEO if only to identify those attributes that are important to lead the on-going process of change in FE. The attributes prioritised by the principals may offer a guide to an effective approach to leadership in colleges. There were broad areas of agreement as well as some anomalies when analysing the results from the group categories of the principals. In leadership research even a limited review of the literature would illustrate that anomalies are common.

The length of time in management provides differences in leadership perception. Those in management for 21 to 25 years showed two attributes that together were not priorities for other groups but which emphasised a people-centred approach and what

might be termed a leader-follower emphasis. Such emphasis could lead to the idea that experience is vital for leaders but what has to be considered is not only the length of experience but also the quality of that experience. The research of Fiedler et al (1981) indicated that the length of time in an organisation does not contribute to effective leader performance. Bettin and Kennedy (1990) recognised that 'for experience to contribute to performance it must be relevant to the current job' (p.226). The length of a CEO's tenure was found to offer differences in the priorities of attributes but the pattern of priority did not offer clear agreement with the Hambrick and Fukutomi (1991) premise of a season's model of CEO effectiveness. Early in a CEO's tenure, the organisation's performance will tend to increase. Late in the tenure the CEO often adheres to a set of perhaps, obsolete paradigms, relies on limited sources of information and has little interest for new or even maintenance tasks. Thus at some point in a CEO's tenure, organisational performance diminishes. At that point if it could be recognised, a CEO should perhaps be encouraged to leave or be replaced or perhaps identify or have identified for them new stimuli for improvement. Those stimuli are probably from the board or corporation members in the case of a college principal. What has been found in other research is that the board itself may inhibit the work of the CEO and thus limit performance.

Birnbaum (1986) showed that on average a principal's effectiveness declines, or appears to decline as their term of office lengthens. In part this is likely to be because the early years of challenge and excitement in the role have gone and that principals become discouraged or disillusioned as they approach retirement. Birnbaum found that this decline may be due to principals being effective for the time and tasks for

which they were chosen with attributes identified as suitable by the corporation but that they require more/ different attributes as the environment changes.

The attributes selected by the principals also suggest that some seek greater control of their organisations than others and that some who maintain control via high centralisation and little delegation whereas others maintain less control and allow decentralisation and delegation of many activities. At one end of the continuum will be high centralisation which will according to Nahavandi and Malekzadeh (1993)

take place at the expense of attention to process and employee participation as well as little encouragement of diversity... decentralisation resulting from a leader's low control, will entail focus on employee involvement and tolerance and encouragement of diversity (p.414).

Decentralisation is a method that leads to the empowerment of staff and a sharing of leadership responsibility that was referred to by Riley (1997).

The most important attributes selected by the governors were those of communication, team development and teamwork. When comparing the attributes prioritised by the governors with those of the principals, those in the 55-60 years age group had an attribute priority that most matched those of the corporation, with five attributes out of the top ten. These are also medium to long-serving principals with just under two thirds of them being principals for 6 years or more. It might well be that they are similar because the board was simply following the success of their last principal who could be the only principal they know, or following the paradigm with which they had grown familiar when working with their previous CEO.

According to Aram et al (1995) only a corporation that is designated as high potential can utilise fully all the resources available to it (see Figure 2 on page 206). This would mean that CEO and corporations must both aim to work closely together and that a principal should be supported in taking risks. The taking of risks is essential to provide 'opportunity and innovation' (Giddens, 1998, p.63). Whilst support of the principal is an important role of the board this will be helped if the nature of the support and subsequent working relationship is taken into account in the selection of the new principal. Whilst the attributes sought for candidates may vary, whatever they may be. The literature review in Chapter Three has shown it is likely that a new principal will make a difference and in theory it will be a difference for the better.

Leaders require followers since, as Beckhard (1996) reminds us, 'the first principle of leadership is that it is a relationship between a leader and followers' (p.125). Personal experience would support the placement of the attribute of *face to face contact with staff* as in the bottom six. The exception to this anecdotal experience is that of the principals who have been in post for 2-5 years. Such a low placement of this attribute by almost all the categories of principal is unexpected as modern theories of leadership, clearly stated by Drucker (1996), 'The only definition of a leader is someone who has followers' (p.xii) recognises that leadership and followership are inexorably linked. It could be surmised that this lack of priority was because having talked to staff in the early years of their tenure principals did not find it useful or that they had built up their relationships sufficiently that they could continue them from a distance. It could also be because the college has grown in size and it has become difficult to talk with staff face to face. Four principals in the study felt strongly enough to write on the questionnaire, that they would wish '...to have face to face

contact in an ideal world'. A female principal in the survey wrote, 'How a principal is seen flows from what she does'. She does not say whether the 'doing' is face to face with staff. Peters and Austin (1985) described how even very busy executives had ways of maintaining face to face contact with their colleagues and gave the examples of informal coffee breaks in company reception areas, meals in the company cafeteria where they could meet staff and share information. Leadership that is open and democratic would tend to rely on more day to day contact with staff, although not necessarily all staff. Kotter (1988) and Duignan (1988) agree with the view of Manasse (1986) that 'leaders lead as they manage' (p.153) and that a leader's on-going daily tasks should provide opportunities to keep their finger on the pulse of the organisation and the people in it. It should enable them to share and impart their vision and suggest their interpretation of events.

The future will hold new challenges and Conger and Kanungo (1998) offer their view of the changes in the next century that will have an increasing impact and will occur globally but will affect locally. They put forward the following four areas of change: the economic environment; increasing every day use of information technology; the socio- cultural environment; demands for social responsibility in business.

From the study it is not possible to say if principals will have all the attributes to meet such challenges, however, the attribute *ensure the organisation of the college will meet future challenges* was the only attribute to be in every group's top 10. They do not have *paint a clear picture of future change* in their top 10 (only one group placed it their top 10, tenth.) which showed that they were willing or felt able to

provide the vision for their college and with it a 'guesstimate' of what the future challenges might be. They also had structures in place and some recognition that followers were required. The structure provides a framework within which a leader's actions are limited. It is likely in such a structure that there will be low risk and familiar territory. Where there is great change Banach and Lorenzo (1993) recognise that, 'In a sea of uncertainty, leaders search first for things they can hang on to' (p.29). The placing of these attributes in the top 10 indicates a traditional and limiting, hierarchical and insular view from the principals. Busher and Saran (1994) offer another view of the insularity of principals in their review of the leadership role of headteachers. They described schools as professionally staffed organisations, just like colleges, and stated that,

In professionally led organisations leaders usually share their follower's professional culture, making leaders and followers reluctant to alter working practices which they perceive as entirely appropriate for providing a high quality service, whatever may be the shifting demands of a changing environment (p.11).

The corporation members on the other hand have a more modern and almost, as far as FE colleges are concerned, radical approach to leadership attributes by placing *communication, ability to provide strategic vision, working with a team, and ability to gain the confidence of the college community and the commitment of staff* in their top 10 priorities. This defines a transformational leader who would be responsible for leading change at a time of change. The literature and to some limited extent the survey identified women leaders as having a transformational approach. There has been a great increase in the number of women principals in FE in the last four years and further research might show whether the requirements of corporations are best met by the leadership attributes of women. Handy (1996) when discussing the role of

leaders for the millennium suggests that it will be a tough task and will demand an unusual combination of attributes' (p.8). Whether any of the groups in the study have that combination will be known in the future performance of them and their colleges.

The future will be different according to the Labour Government and currently it is endeavouring to promote the 'Third Way' (Giddens, 1998, p.vii) with its emphasis on cooperation, inclusion and public and private partnerships. There is little evidence that principals or corporations have stressed the attributes to attain this although corporation members have *working with a team* high in their priority list. Working with teams indicates a preference for collaboration and a more democratic approach to leadership.

This approach is strongly advocated by Whitaker (1998) who argues that:

In order to bring about a significant shift from individualism to collaboration, notions of leadership need to be rethought and new definitions agreed. Leadership can no longer continue only to be associated with the roles and responsibilities of senior members of management teams. The whole staff needs to be seen as the management team, and leadership as the set of skills and qualities that can emerge at any level to move things forward (p.155).

Such a democratic approach is seen as important by Giddens (1998) who offers the thoughts that in order to achieve the third way, 'Most governments still have a good deal to learn from business best practice - for instance ...flexible decision structures and increased employee participation' (p.74-75).

Evidence of this best practice being in colleges would have required different attributes in the top 10 or different descriptors for the attributes. The study has shown

that leadership by principals in further education continues to be traditional and transactional. They continue to be based on the leadership provided by a principal and not on the leadership potential of the people across the organisation. They are concerned with structure and individuals, factors that are pertaining to management rather than leadership. The 21st.Century will require leadership that recognises the importance of working with everyone in the organisation and with each being given the opportunity to play a leadership role. All of which is recognised by college corporations and should be shared with their current principals and not applied clearly when seeking a new principal. They should also recognise with Rouche et al (1990) that 'We know that leadership is greater than the sum of its parts - that it is the catalyst helping colleges forge ahead in the face of great adversity, challenge the status quo, and inspire great performance from those who collectively seek to move students toward success.' (p.189)

Appendix 1

Leadership Survey

The purpose of this survey is to evaluate the leadership style and leadership approaches of Principals/Chief Executives of Colleges of Further Education. The questionnaire is in three parts:

- a) prioritising the leadership attributes by placing the appropriate number in the box on the left-hand side (1 is first priority, 2 is second priority etc);**
- b) rating the leadership statements by circling the appropriate response in the box on the right:- SA(Strongly Agree, A (Agree), N (No Opinion), D(Disagree), SD(Strongly Disagree);**
- c) a brief demographic questionnaire.**

TABLE 1**A Principal should:**

PRIORITY (1-7)	LEADERSHIP STATEMENTS	ATTRIBUTES				
	clearly set out strategies for the management of change	SA	A	N	D	SD
	show an anticipation of future change	SA	A	N	D	SD
	paint a clear picture of future change	SA	A	N	D	SD
	have a willingness to change direction in response to market need	SA	A	N	D	SD
	create systems that will recognise future challenges and opportunities	SA	A	N	D	SD
	ensure the organisation of the college will meet future challenges	SA	A	N	D	SD
	build up an information network to recognise what the future may hold	SA	A	N	D	SD

Any other comments?**TABLE 2****The Principal of a college should:**

PRIORITY	LEADERSHIP STATEMENTS	ATTRIBUTES				
	define clearly the management structure of the college	SA	A	N	D	SD
	have clear recognisable views on how the college should be managed	SA	A	N	D	SD
	have obvious views on how to work with colleagues	SA	A	N	D	SD
	be an active team player	SA	A	N	D	SD
	be seen as a hard-working and dynamic individual	SA	A	N	D	SD
	show an understanding of the external working environment of the college	SA	A	N	D	SD

Any other comments?

TABLE 3**A Principal should:**

PRIORITY (1-7)	LEADERSHIP STATEMENTS	ATTRIBUTES				
	build a well organised administration	SA	A	N	D	SD
	seek an organisation that is responsive to customer need	SA	A	N	D	SD
	ensure that the role of subordinates are clearly defined	SA	A	N	D	SD
	employ staff who have high levels of interpersonal skills	SA	A	N	D	SD
	encourage creative skills in all staff	SA	A	N	D	SD
	take responsibility for the errors of colleagues	SA	A	N	D	SD

Any other comments?**TABLE 4****The Principal of a college should:**

PRIORITY	LEADERSHIP STATEMENTS	ATTRIBUTES				
	rely on a team approach to management	SA	A	N	D	SD
	have professional, subject discipline or technical expertise	SA	A	N	D	SD
	see the importance of using this personal expertise within their overall management strategy	SA	A	N	D	SD
	have a high level of presentation skills	SA	A	N	D	SD
	encourage response to needs as they arise	SA	A	N	D	SD

Any other comments?

TABLE 5**A Principal should:**

PRIORITY (1-7)	LEADERSHIP STATEMENTS	ATTRIBUTES				
	regularly review the college structure	SA	A	N	D	SD
	use the structure as the vehicle for pursuing policies	SA	A	N	D	SD
	recognise the strengths and weaknesses of the college	SA	A	N	D	SD
	enjoy working with and supporting colleagues	SA	A	N	D	SD
	work with rather than through individuals	SA	A	N	D	SD
	enable individuals to take ownership of the challenges facing them	SA	A	N	D	SD
	have considerable day to day contact with staff	SA	A	N	D	SD

Any other comments?**TABLE 6****The Principal of a college should:**

PRIORITY	LEADERSHIP STATEMENTS	ATTRIBUTES				
	be comfortable managing change	SA	A	N	D	SD
	have the ability to negotiate and renegotiate to reach agreement	SA	A	N	D	SD
	accept friction as a necessary attribute of change	SA	A	N	D	SD
	be able to distance oneself from day to day issues	SA	A	N	D	SD
	seek and receive regular feedback from colleagues	SA	A	N	D	SD
	value the feedback from colleagues	SA	A	N	D	SD
	be able to influence people to their own point of view	SA	A	N	D	SD

Any other comments?

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Age (Please Tick)

- ☐ 30 - 35
☐ 36 - 40
☐ 41 - 45
☐ 46 - 50
☐ 51 - 55
☐ 56 - 60
☐ 61 - 65

Gender (Please tick)

- ☐ Female
☐ Male

Total years in FE Management

Total years a Principal

Qualification(s) in Education

Please tick if have stated qualification

- Cert. Ed. ☐
 Bachelor's Degree ☐
 Master's Degree ☐
 Ph.D ☐

Qualifications in Management

- CMS/DMS ☐
 Bachelor's Degree ☐
 Master's Degree ☐
 Ph.D ☐

Other Qualification(s)

Subject

- | | | |
|-----------------|--------------------------|-------|
| HNC/HND | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| BSc | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| BA | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| Master's Degree | <input type="checkbox"/> | |
| PhD | <input type="checkbox"/> | |

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